

Volume III.
Number 4.

April, 1895.

Whole
Number 24.

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

A RECENT TENDENCY IN SECONDARY EDUCATION EXAMINED

The recent history of secondary school programmes, especially of high school programmes in this country, reveals an interesting and significant tendency. Not many years ago, the secondary school programme consisted of a single course of study, or at most of two courses of study which must be pursued, as laid down, by pupils who desired to graduate and obtain the diploma of the school. The substance of the preferred course of study was Latin, Greek, and Mathematics. The programme usually comprised also a smattering of general history, including the history of English literature, the writing of a few English essays or "compositions", and occasionally political economy and "mental science". This was the Classical Course always pursued by those pupils who were going to college; and to it also most other pupils possessing, or at least claiming to possess, social and intellectual superiority devoted themselves. These pupils thus formed the fortunate circle of the intellectual and social élite; and by means of the classical course those pupils who were not yet of this fortunate circle sought to gain admission to it.

The other course was (and often still is) either like the Classical Course with the Greek left out, and French or German substituted in its place, or both Latin and Greek were omitted and science and modern languages took their places. In the latter case, *i. e.* when both Latin and Greek were omitted their

places were often taken by an ill-assorted aggregate of subjects treated rather briefly, and called "English Branches." Because of the usually scrappy character of the studies substituted for the Classics, and because of the inferior instruction often given in these substituted subjects, the non-classical course was, at first, and for a long time afterwards, almost always in fact as always in reputation, inferior to the Classical Course. It was intended for those pupils who had no hope of going to college, for those who presumably had no "literary aspirations" or had no reasonable expectation of rising above their present social position, and for the hopelessly dull.

In spite, however, of this original and not yet obsolete inferiority, the non-classical course survived; and it did not merely survive, but it improved in quality, and at the same time multiplied "by fission" as the biologists would say; so that in place of a single course, parallel to the classical course, two or more such courses came to be recognized. Through such changes the original secondary school programme has become transformed into a number of parallel courses of study—there being in some large schools as many as seven such courses, each one of which leads to graduation and a diploma. Moreover, as already intimated, the partially or wholly non-classical courses have constantly risen in quality through changes in the nature and arrangement of the subject matter, and through improvements in the teaching, until, in some schools, the original inferiority of these courses has wholly disappeared; and they are recognized as, in all respects, equal to the classical course in dignity and educational value. At the same time, the classical course itself has undergone modifications through the incorporation of science and modern languages, subjects at first regarded as essentially foreign to the scope and meaning of that course.

It appears, therefore, that in the recent history of secondary education, we find a tendency to the multiplication of distinct parallel courses of study, and, to a less extent, to the extension of the scope of the traditional classical course of study; and

at the same time a growing disposition to regard these courses of study as of more nearly equal value and dignity than heretofore ; or, at any rate, a willingness to believe that all these courses of study, through suitable selection and arrangement of subject matter and through good teaching, can be made of substantially equal efficacy for educational purposes.

Now, it need hardly be pointed out that these changes in secondary education are the result of external demands rather than a development from within; that they have resulted from the more or less reasonable demands of parents usually influenced by but often independent of their sons and daughters, rather than from the deliberate purpose of teachers who have convinced themselves by observation and reflection of the desirability of these changes. The single prescribed course once abandoned has never been reestablished however, and with the quite general adoption of several parallel courses, through imitation of the larger and more influential schools by the smaller and less important, has also come a desire on the part of all to justify such programmes by an appeal to principles.

I said the demands of parents for two or more parallel courses leading to the diploma of the school were more or less reasonable. I mean that while parents often yielded to the caprice of pupils or to the unwillingness of pupils to do hard work, while insisting on a diploma for such work as the pupils were willing to do, it, nevertheless, often happened that sons and daughters of undoubted intellectual ability failed to profit by the classical course to the extent which their ability and general willingness to work seemed to warrant. Further it was apparent that such boys and girls were not interested in the prescribed work, and often when possible left school for more congenial pursuits. Once out of school they often acquitted themselves in such a way as to leave no doubt of their real ability. Moreover, it appeared to intelligent parents much better that their children should take a course of study of alleged and often confessed inferiority if they could be induced thereby to put forth real effort and develop such intellectual

tastes and capacities as they had, than that they should miss such development in youth altogether by leaving school, or if they remained in school, that they should develop the habit of skilfully evading all real work and run the risk of acquiring a real aversion to all intellectual effort and conquest. Again the apparent remoteness of the subject matter of the Classical Course from all the practical concerns of life, seemed to many intelligent and energetic, but uncultivated parents, to outweigh any alleged and usually admitted general disciplinary value that such a course of study might have ; and so, both on educational and on somewhat narrow utilitarian grounds, the latter much more commonly, courses of study in which the classics should not constitute almost all of the subject matter of instruction were demanded and supplied. In other words it was perceived rather dimly at first, but with rapidly increasing clearness, that individuals differ in their tastes and capacities, and consequent reasonable demands, and that a uniform course of study for all ignored these differences and, therefore, was not adapted to the wants of all the pupils. With the recognition of this fact the public high school gradually ceased its endeavor to impress its preconceived notions of what was good for every individual on the parents and on the pupils, and began to adapt its opportunities to the real or supposed necessities of its pupils and patrons. The latest form of this adaptation is, however, not merely the establishment of several distinct courses of study, one of which a pupil must pursue as laid down, but *choices are permitted within these courses*, and, further, in some important high schools—there are at least three such schools within twenty miles of the State House in Boston—at least one of these “courses of study” *offers a wide range of electives throughout*.

The tendency that we have traced in the recent history of secondary education is, therefore, a tendency to arrange the subject matter of instruction in the form of *suggestive schedules* rather than as mandatory programmes, and to permit each pupil, presumably under wise guidance, to select those subjects or

groups of subjects which are adapted to his wants and tastes.

I purpose now to inquire if this tendency, originally impressed on the schools from without, toward making the work of the secondary school largely elective is justified by sound pedagogical principles, *i. e.*, by valid considerations of the aims and means of education; and hence whether this tendency should be yielded to, and even deliberately encouraged, or whether it is a pernicious tendency subversive of the real interests of the pupils, and hence deserves to be resisted and overcome.

In the consideration of this question it will be necessary to deal with at least two educational commonplaces, namely, the whole aim of education, and the teacher's attitude toward his profession, which involves a conscious recognition of that aim. I do not hesitate to dwell upon these commonplaces, because they are by no means commonplaces of practice as they are in theory; moreover, a restatement of them in order to recognize their importance by bringing to light their effect on the future of every human being subjected to their influence can not be superfluous. Our professional life is largely a repetition of commonplaces whose significance we are in danger of losing. To seize this significance rationalizes endeavor, and hence restores the enthusiasm, inspiration, and guidance for fresh effort that is born of a renewed insight.

I have elsewhere pointed out how rare it is to find teachers whose work is determined by conscious aims, and consequently how narrow is the professional horizon of most of them.

I shall not soon forget the surprise with which an intelligent teacher said, not long ago, "an aim, I have no aim in teaching; that is a new idea!" and another New England teacher, one of the first in his profession, said, in reply to my statement that every teacher's *purpose* must determine the nature and quality of his work, "I have no purpose in teaching astronomy; I don't know why I teach it!" These teachers did not, of course, represent themselves quite fairly. But they did mean, that beyond the immediate object of inducing their pu-

pils to learn their daily lessons in Algebra, and Latin, and Astronomy, they had no conscious purpose by which their whole activity as teachers was determined; and specifically, that the choice of these subjects as fit subject matter of instruction was no concern of theirs; they taught these subjects as best they could, because those subjects were in the course of study which was like other courses of study, or because those subjects were required for admission to college.

It seems necessary, then, to remind ourselves that programmes or courses of study are not divine revelations deserving of implicit adherence. On the contrary, they sometimes suggest a very different origin. But whatever the wisdom or unwisdom of their content and form, it is obvious that programmes or courses of study are not an end in themselves, but a means to an end. They involve, as intimated above, the whole aim of education, and the teacher's attitude toward that aim.

The aim of education is and always will be "preparation for complete living." Preparation for complete living means the acquisition of knowledge drawn from the two fields of all human activity—*man and his experience and achievements, and external nature*; and training to intelligent and productive activity in the use of this knowledge, and to proper enjoyment of it. In the actual work of education we commonly divide this preparation into three periods—primary, secondary, and higher education. We are in this paper concerned with the first two. Too commonly we have failed to attach much significance to this division beyond regarding it as a suitable stratification of our school system with appropriate subdivisions to each stratum, for the convenient handling of masses of children and youth for periodic examination and transfer from one stratum to another.

For this mechanical conception a more intelligent one is, however, gaining acceptance; namely, that this preparation, though roughly divisible into periods, is an organic process with an unbroken sequence corresponding to the child's advancing

mental, moral, and physical development from one end of school life to the other. This conception naturally leads to a consideration of aims, means, and methods appropriate to different stages of the work, and to the recognition that aims, means, and methods of one sort may not cease abruptly at any point for totally different ones, but that the aims to be achieved, the means to be employed, and the methods used at one stage must merge into the aims, means, and methods appropriate to a later stage. We may, however, for purposes of discussion, separate the chief ends to be accomplished during these three stages from each other, in order to point how they necessarily determine the school programmes and the teacher's conception of his work.

The stage of primary or elementary education may appropriately be called the stage of nutrition. In that stage life is full of wonders. Everything is yet to be discovered. The mind of the child is to be opened and the world is to be let in. The teacher is a veritable magician under whose guidance the pupil is to experience more and far greater delights than those of myth or fairy land, and the treasures discovered are to be his own if he will but exert himself to seize them. The wonderful beauty and structure of organic and inorganic forms; the marvellous laws of nature; the hint of system in number and form; some appreciation of grandeur and beauty in landscape and sea and sky; the secrets of life as revealed in the form, the structure, the life history, and especially the habits of animals and plants; these are some of the treasures which the world offers him, and which the teacher both reveals to him and helps him to make his own. Nor is the story of man less attractive at this age than the story of nature. The myths of early days, the heroes of legend, and later the heroes of history, not sovereigns and mere war heroes mainly, but chiefly the men and women who are remembered with affection and respect, for the good, the true, or the beautiful they have wrought. The story of the gradual rise of popular liberty and of national stability so far as these lie within the com-

prehension of the child; the delights of poetry and of romance—the literature of his own and other tongues that thrill him with pleasure and feed his young imagination with pure and noble ideals—these treasures also the teacher brings within his reach. The artists too, the musician, the painter, the engraver, and the sculptor are called upon to contribute their share to the enrichment of his young life with the purest pleasures. Meanwhile under the teacher's guidance the pupil's tongue and hand are not idle. He learns to employ both in acquiring and in giving expression to the ideas he has gained. Through oral and written speech, through drawing, and through various forms of manual construction, he learns his power over his acquisitions, and while heightening his feeling of intellectual achievement puts into permanent form the thoughts he has had or the forms which he has conceived.

The teacher who looks upon education as the process which thus begins to reveal the world of nature and the world of man to his pupil, who regards himself as the pupil's guide and interpreter, will keenly feel back of the commonplaces of his routine both the responsibilities and the privileges of his vocation. "He will then say of his own accord," says Herbart, "that not he but the whole power of what humanity has felt, experienced, and thought, is the true and right educator, to which the boy is entitled, and that the teacher is given to him merely that he may help by an intelligent interpretation and elevating companionship. Thus to present the whole treasure of accumulated research in a concentrated form to the youthful generation is the highest service which mankind at any period of its existence can render to its successors, be it as teaching or as warning." In other words, the true teacher will realize that the intellectual, moral, and social atmosphere which he creates is the medium of the pupil's dawning intellectual and spiritual life. To economize time and energy, to make the most of native endowments, to stimulate, to guide, restrain, direct, encourage the pupil's own activity with fine feeling and good sense, such is the exalted function of the elementary teacher—such *must be his aim*.

It need hardly be said that such an aim determines a totally different activity from that in which the teacher merely sets a task for the pupil to perform, and then satisfies himself that the pupil has or has not performed it. Such an aim will induce the teacher so to deal with his subject *and his pupil* that although the details of the knowledge presented may be forgotten, the memory of the charm of its novelties and of its beauties skilfully revealed, of the intellectual conquests that it afforded, of the wonderful relations between the different parts of the whole field of knowledge which were discovered, of its availability for the service or for the pleasures of men; in a word, the many-sided interest which was developed in knowledge and in the varied activities of which a human being is capable will remain as a permanent mental possession.

As yet, however, the mind of the child has only been aroused. It has been touched by life in its manifold forms, and it thrills and pulsates with its own awakening. This has been the purpose, and should be the result of primary education. An orderly presentation of the whole field of knowledge has nourished the child's growing mind, has called into activity his varied powers, and has given him glimpses of fresh fields to explore and greater conquests to achieve beyond. He eagerly seizes on every subject, and enters with zest on every fresh undertaking.

But children are, after all, very unstable creatures. Much of the knowledge and power, and interest of the earlier years is superficial and transitory. The random interest, the restless activity, the manifold impulses of this early stage are to be organized and controlled. Alertness must not be sacrificed; but interest must glow steadily, choice and action must become deliberate. Stability and concentration must come to characterize the *youth's* mental life as well as alertness and activity.

Now habitual alertness, stability, and vigorous activity, are sure to follow adaptation to individual interests. These individual interests begin to emerge as soon as the pupil's acquisitions arrange themselves into separate classes. As these classes

of acquisitions and pursuits diverge more and more, each of them assumes marked peculiarities. The youth finds himself no longer attracted by every suggested activity, but certain kinds of knowledge, and certain forms of activity have a charm for him which other kinds of knowledge and other forms of activity do not possess. The field of knowledge has become an array of different subjects, each of which has its own peculiar form and content, and its own peculiar mode of treatment. He feels himself, unconsciously at first, but with rapidly-growing consciousness, permanently attracted by some subjects in themselves or through the treatment they receive, and by some forms of activity ; while, similarly, other subjects or other activities are indifferent or even distasteful to him. Moreover, it is no longer possible for him to compass the whole field of knowledge after it has separated into many distinct subjects, even if he were impelled to do so. This gradual selective or elective action of the pupil's mind is as *important* as it is *natural*. It marks the stage during which the pupil emerges from early childhood into later childhood and youth. It deserves the most careful study. It shows that primary education *has* accomplished its purpose. It *has* made the pupil responsive to the varied interests of life. It should, therefore, be welcomed and facilitated, but also guided and directed through wise restrictions.

It deserves to be facilitated because all real activity on which growth depends as contrasted with mere passive receptivity depends on interest. From this time forward, therefore, the pupil's real effort will be reserved for his preferences. If these preferences are discovered and justly regarded in his choice of work, he may through them develop dominant groups of ideas, to which all other acquisitions are referred, and through which all other acquisitions are interpreted—become significant. Through these dominant groups of ideas the organization of his knowledge and thorough achievement are natural and inevitable. Without them, desultory effort, sporadic exertion, half achievement, are sure to determine the nature and quality

of his work. The intellectual flabbiness, and uncertainty, the want of enthusiasm and pleasure in knowledge and the pursuit of knowledge, too often shown by many a high school pupil and even by high school graduates illustrate what is meant. The pursuit of work in accordance with the pupil's preferences must, therefore, be facilitated in order that, under the teacher's guidance, the real quality and temper of the pupil's mind may be discovered, and that on the basis of this discovery he may be led to mental stability, habitual alertness, and vigorous activity. But while the preferences of the pupil thus need to be facilitated, it is also apparent that they should throughout early youth be guided and restricted with the greatest care. Some of the preferences shown by a pupil are sure to be superficial and transitory. Great care must therefore be exercised that caprice, or a chance interest, may not narrow the whole range of the pupil's life. Moreover, the power to attend to the immediately uninteresting for the sake of reaching a remoter interest has to be developed, and hence the pupil may, during the stage under consideration, be wisely required to attend to subjects, and to exert himself, for a suitable time, in ways and at times which are in themselves unattractive or even irksome to him. But before long every subject of instruction and every form of activity in itself, even when preferred by the pupil, offers sufficient opportunity for such will training, and, consequently, as the pupil's real tastes appear they can be yielded to more and more to his own great advantage. Again subjects needed for ethical and social enlightenment on the one hand, and for an appreciative understanding of nature on the other, must not be lightly set aside nor easily abandoned. Further, intensiveness and continuity in the pursuit of individual subjects beyond their barest rudiments and of activities beyond their beginnings are essential to the development of power. Such intensiveness and continuity only can determine whether a pupil has a real or merely a transitory or illusory interest in given subjects. For these reasons the pupil's work in accordance with his preferences

must be carefully guided and restricted. All this requires much intelligent experimenting. Without such experimentation there is sure to be much waste of time and energy, and there may be positive retrogression. Besides it must not be overlooked that bad teaching may produce precisely the same result as uninteresting subject matter. Hence beside the necessity of a properly guarded choice among the different subjects, there is also the incidental implied necessity of a choice among the different teachers. The period for this experimentation is the period covered by secondary education, say from the pupil's eleventh or twelfth to his eighteenth or twentieth year. The pupil's secondary education, therefore, begins before he completes his (present) grammar school course and continues throughout the entire high school period.

During this period, then, there is laid upon the teacher, in addition to the duties described above in connection with the considerations on elementary education, the difficult task of *wisely using the course of study as a means of discovering the pupil and leading him to self-revelation.*

To make such a discovery and revelation possible, flexible programmes with a large range of electives are necessary. Without such programmes it is useless to expect spontaneous effort. Under compulsion pupils respond to external demands only; they know little of the joy of achievement, and of the pleasures of intellectual activity in general. Under compulsion the pupil is prevented from experimenting, and without experimentation it is impossible for him or for any one else to know what he can and what he can not do; what he enjoys and what is distasteful to him. Of course, an indiscriminate or random choosing of certain subjects and corresponding neglect of certain others should not be permitted. To surrender the pupil to his own caprice is as bad as to compel him to adhere to an externally imposed régime. But without the opportunity to choose for himself he never can develop independence of thought and action, moral poise and vigor.

To develop habits of thorough acquisition, it is necessary

that each subject, or group of closely related subjects, once undertaken, if found adapted to the pupil, should be pursued long enough and intensively enough to demand earnest attention to them. It does not require much exertion, and it is no real test of interest or power to skim the surface of a subject with avidity. But to deal with it intensively, to penetrate willingly into its resources and master its difficulties call for real interest and genuine application. And such pursuit of the subjects or groups of subjects will make them substantially equal so far as the development of intellectual habits is concerned, it will accordingly establish their claim to equal dignity and educational value.

The opportunities required for such purposes will be adequately provided, first, when each secondary school determines the amount of instruction which it is prepared to offer in each subject for each year, and then regards the tabulation of this instruction or the so called "courses of study" not as mandatory programmes but, with certain necessary restrictions, as suggestive schedules; and second, when it may also be justly said of those schools that the teachers in them are efficient, kind, and just; and that the general atmosphere prevailing there is inspiring and refining. Efficient, kindly, and just teachers will be found when the community demands them and is ready to pay for and appreciate them. The responsibility for securing such teachers for the secondary schools rests on the superintendents and principals.

Here then we have the answer to the question I proposed. The present tendency, traced in the beginning of this paper toward arranging high school programmes in parallel courses of study, some of them with a wide range of electives throughout is, so far as it goes, in harmony with sound educational principles, and with the real interests of the pupils; it should, therefore, be deliberately encouraged.

* *Paul H. Hanus*

Harvard University

RIGID COURSES *VERSUS* OPTIONAL STUDIES

Our secondary education has become exceedingly multiform. In its anxiety to give the public every element of utility for which there is a general demand, it is perpetually developing new institutions and complicating old routines in perplexing ways. Even in the primary stage of education the child is compelled to choose whether he will take any or all of the new enrichments. When he comes to the high school, the youth must again choose what kind of high school he will attend, or what sort of course he will follow. In short, we have option already on a large scale in our pre-collegiate instruction. Even for children and youth, choice, volition, preference, have become familiar ideas. Our whole education is honey-combed with individuality. Each parent has his own educational philosophy. System is undermined, and is ceasing to command respect. The several periods of education are less and less conceived as definitely chartable territories of which exact maps can be drawn and for which minute codes of law can be prescribed.

Those who wish to serve as leaders of the new movement in secondary education may as well abandon the attempt to devise slight improvements in old courses, or to reconstitute the systematic groupings of studies with which the schools have always been familiar. It is impossible to say that certain studies essentially and necessarily belong together in such sort that they must be taken as a whole and cannot tolerate intermixture or omission. Hitherto it has been the wont of educationists to assume for themselves competency to detect certain inner principles of relationship between studies, and according to these principles to build up schemes of culture for which they claimed the virtue of essential unity. In reality this assumption of the theorists was always a piece of temerity. They have by no means agreed among themselves. Their schemes have changed from year to year. With whatever carefulness of thought and energy of resolution a course is put in operation this year, it will be modified next year in defer-

ence to any trivial considerations of convenience that may arise. We are simply not accustomed to regard as sacredly binding any scheme of prescription in education. Philosophers may evolve what sanctions they will for their plans; but the necessity of meeting public demands overrides all the sanctions.

If the aim and end of a school were to embody in practice perfectly symmetrical courses of study, then the making of courses would be an all-important function of educational activity. But the aim of the school should be to discover, to respect, and to develop individual aptitudes. The school procedures should involve the least possible amount of intellectual constraint. There are innumerable good educations, as we confess by our multiplex institutions. A good school will not limit itself to one form, to one pre-established grouping of the elements. The ambition of a school should be to make its offers of opportunity as rich as possible. There should be no orthodox or canonical combinations. Any such attempted assumption of orthodoxy for certain courses must remain purely local, without validity in the world at large, where tastes are as numerous as men, and where it is an accepted maxim that with regard to tastes there shall be no disputing.

The school, with its rigidly prescribed course, loves to usurp the entire intellectual energy of the youth. But most young people, especially in populous communities, have many out of school interests, which are as important to their culture as the school itself. It is important to a youth to have his mind fully occupied with wholesome employment; but it is by no means important that all his activities find their spurs and incentives in his class rooms. There are many parts of a generous education which the schools have not as yet been able to furnish. Even where the schools are the most developed, those parents consult badly for the interests of their children who do not see to it that their children learn many things which the schools cannot teach.

Hence the school should willingly allow choices of what would seem abnormally scant lines of work. The stigma of a

partial course will disappear when the standard itself of a full course shall have disappeared.

We have already advanced so far that we allow options of schools and options of courses in schools. The next step,—and it is inevitable,—is to allow options of single studies. It remains that we abandon all attempt to prescribe the *quid* and the *quantum*. So long, of course, as we contemplate the conferring of a diploma, it will be necessary to adopt some standard of attainment; but to this standard the roads should be many.

A good public library, an art museum, a university extension course of lectures, a conservatory of music, a school of languages, and many other institutions developed most legitimately to answer pressing demands, but left necessarily outside our graded systems, are just as much centres of education as are the duly classed and titled schools over which official pedagogy presides, and for which philosophy elaborates its fine courses of study. The public wants many things, and gets them, in some shape, careless about their relations to each other and to existing systems. Hence education becomes a vast congeries of functions, and organization of the whole becomes unthinkable. Within this undefined mass of educational atoms our conventional prescriptions of groups grow less and less conspicuous and imposing. Harvard College is our most marked type of the organized education of the future. The question,—what is the Harvard course of study,—has become wholly obsolete and ridiculous. Perhaps the same thing will one day be said about our great city high schools.

It should be remembered that most of the instruction in Harvard College proper, as distinguished from the University, is secondary instruction; that is, not professional, but disciplinary. The example of Harvard has no essential lack of relationship to the problems of the high schools. Youth pass into the secondary stage long before they enter college. It is perfectly right to say that the same privilege of choice that Harvard grants, and that has made Harvard marvellously popular, would also make the high schools popular.

Suppose a high school pupil should devote himself almost exclusively to science, or to literature, or to history? Can it be argued that notable proficiency in any one of these departments issues in a culture inferior to that which our youth now get from their very small achievements in the most diverse branches of study? In our fear of a one-sided education perhaps we fall into the error of a dispersed and dissipated education. The individual pupil takes too many subjects because we find it necessary to force upon every pupil nearly all the subjects which have crowded into our programmes.

The Committee of Ten received and co-ordinated the reports of the conferences on the assumption that every pupil who chose a course must take all the studies with which the committee packed this course. Hence it was absolutely necessary to compress the recommendations of the conferences, and where the conferences solicited five hours per week for their respective departments, to grant them only two or three. The true way would have been to keep the generous allotment of hours, and to allow a plenty of options; to allow, in fact, so many options that the idea of a course should have disappeared. The Committee of Ten failed to utilize its golden opportunity. It might have said to the educational public—avoid petty assignments of one or two or three hours a week; make each study really liberal in opportunity of time and material; encourage concentration on a few topics; and do not have an educational scheme to enforce on the plea that it is *the course*.

Secondary schools no more need uniformity among themselves than colleges do. They have the same title to originality and individuality that the colleges have. Each school should have its distinctive character; it should seek its ideal in its own perceptions of the needs of the community which it serves. A legalized uniformity in secondary institutions prevails in Germany; but we cannot imagine American legislatures discussing school programmes and enacting them into laws. Fortunately, all that the American advocates of uni-

formity can do is to get courses made and elucidated by conspicuous men, and then to inaugurate vast eulogy of these courses as conclusive consummations and settlements. It is the familiar method of *réclame*.

The secondary school should grow, not by crowding new studies into its course, but simply by organizing new subjects of instruction side by side with the old ones, as so many new opportunities of culture. No school should have to wait for another school, or be required to follow the example of another school. Nor should a school maintain lines of instruction which the community obviously does not want. What a community wants experiment will soon show. Perhaps the public will grow cool towards a subject because the subject is ill taught. No wholesomer influence can be exerted on the schools than this practical and effectual criticism, expressed by withdrawal of favor from branches not made attractive and interesting by their teachers. Precisely this tonic the schools seem to need. The rigid course is the paradise of inefficiency.

The much desired and altogether desirable "closer articulation" of secondary schools with colleges is by no means to be sought in solicitation of the schools to merge their differences and become all alike in their courses. The college, which prescribes almost nothing, and the secondary school, which prescribes almost everything, cannot possibly approach each other and become like each other, unless either school or college denies its nature for the moment; and as the school is hard and fixed, while the college is elastic and free, it is for the college, at its point of contact with the school—that is, in its entrance examinations—to go out of its character, to cease to be liberal, and for the nonce to show itself exacting and arbitrary. The college largeness should now at length begin to show itself in its terms of admission. The parts of secondary education which come before and after matriculation should cease to be so unlike. Forms of preparation as manifold as the subsequent work should be allowed and encouraged. What-

ever new device in the examination machinery is needed to make this idea practicable should be invented forthwith.

S. Thurber

Girls' High School, Boston

ROMAN EDUCATION *

CHAP. I. (*Concluded*)

THE ROMAN PEOPLE

Social Life—The Roman family was the unit of the Roman State. This could not be said either of Athens or Sparta. In the family we find, in its most pronounced form, the absolute authority of the father over all the members. "If any one thing," (says Becker in his *Gallus*.) "more strikingly exhibits the austerity of the Roman character and its propensity to domination, it is the arbitrary power which the father possesses over his children. By the laws of nature, immediate authority over the children belongs to the father only for the time during which they require his providing care, protection, and guidance. The humanity and right feeling of the Grecian legislators led them to look at the matter from this point of view, allowing the authority of the father to last only till the son was of a certain age, or till he was married, or was entered on the list of citizens; and they so restricted this power that the utmost a father could do was to eject his son from his home and disinherit him. Not so in Rome. There the child was born the property of his father, who could dispose of it as he thought fit. This power might last, under certain limitations, even till the death of the father." §

"The power we have over our children," says the Jurist Gaius, "is a right peculiar to the Romans." In truth we must regard the father of the family as both priest and *magistrate*.

* Professor Laurie's papers will be published in April by the Messrs. Longman in a revised and extended form under the title, "Historical Survey of Pre-Christian Education."

† Excursus II, Scene II page 179.

The unity of the family was further represented in the worship of the household gods, who protected the sacred hearth—the Penates. The *gens* or clan was merely an enlarged *familia*, and as each father and mother were priest and priestess in their own house, so the *gentes* had common altars and sacrifices. The state was thus made up of many little states bound together by mutual interests and religious ceremonies. The authority of the head of each family was the basis of the authority of the central power, and the obedience and military subjection of the members of the families and clans were the basis of that capacity for obedience and discipline which always distinguished the Roman.

The religion of the Roman state, it has been said, was simply the religion of the domestic hearth writ large, for the state too had its common hearth where the Vestal Virgins guarded forever the eternal fire which symbolized at once the sacredness and the purity of the Roman home. But while the Goddess of the Hearth, Vesta, held her central place of honour in the vaulted temple, supposed to have been built after the manner of the atrium of a house between the Capitoline and Palatine hills, she was worshipped not merely as a public goddess, as among the Greeks, but at every private hearth. The common meals of the family were taken round the hearth, and were a daily bond of family union and a daily act of worship. The Penates were household gods who protected the going out and coming in of the members of the family, and to whom at every meal libations were offered.

The practice of monogamy was not peculiar to the Romans, but the honour paid to the wife as head of the household seems to have been first fully recognized by them. The Spartan mother had a high place assigned to her, but owing to the public system of education, she exercised less personal influence than the Roman. Within the house woman was not servant, but mistress. She exercised a power almost equal to that of her husband. "Exempted," says Mommsen, "from the tasks of corn-grinding and cooking, which, according to the Roman

ideas, belonged to menials, the Roman housewife devoted herself in the main to the superintendence of her maid servants, and to the accompanying labours of the distaff." She was not relegated to private life in a *gynceum* like the Athenian. She occupied the *atrium* surrounded by her servants and children. The woman being held in such high honour, and her permanent position as wife being protected by law, she felt that on her depended the honour of the family. The high moral character of the Roman matron thus became famous for all time ; and her influence on the character and education of her sons was unquestionably great. "Do not kiss me," said the mother of the victorious Coriolanus, "till I know whether you are an enemy or a son ;" and when his wife fell on her knees weeping in support of the mother, the haughty conqueror yielded and said : "Mother, this is a happy victory for you and for Rome, but it is ruin and shame to your son ;" and shedding tears retreated from his native city which he had doomed. We may then confidently accept the remark of Mommsen, that the "Roman family from the first contained within it the conditions of a high culture in the mere *moral* adjustment of the mutual relations of its members."

"As the strictly organized family," says Ihne (iv. 250,) "forms the basis for the national life of the Roman people and the starting point for the development of the State ; so also Roman morality and private economy were determined by the influence which the same family organization exercised upon every member of society. . . labour, frugality, self-sacrifice for the good of the house and state were the active virtues of the old Roman peasant."

The depth of family feeling among the Romans, and the conservatism of their character are well illustrated by the practice of carrying masks of their progenitors to funerals, so that the head of a family might be said to be followed by his own ancestors to the last funeral rites.

Civil Relations—What now was the Roman in his civil relations as distinguished from the religious and the social ?

In the original constitution of Rome, the burgesses or free-men constituted the State. The elders of the 300 clans forming the community were the senate and coördinate with the king. The various members of the family, however distantly related, constituted the gens or clan. The senators who represented the clans—to the number of 300—were the king's council; but the ultimate appeal was to the whole body of Burgesses or Patricii. We see from this that from the first the Roman led a public and political life. The expulsion of the kings and the transference of power to the consuls and senate (509 B. C.) brought into being the most powerful aristocratic republic the world has ever seen. The Burgesses had alone originally the duty of bearing arms, which thus was a privilege. They were the Patres, and they and their families were called Patricians in opposition to the Plebs—those inhabitants of Rome who had gathered there after the original settlement. We have not time to dwell on any detailed account of Roman civil life, or to speak of the struggles between Patricians and Plebians. Enough is done for our purposes here if I point out the leading characteristics of Roman life generally. It is thus that we get a key to his conceptions of education. One great event in the development of Roman civil life must, however, be named—the appointment of *decemviri* to draw up a Code of Law. This code, approved by the senate and sanctioned by the assemblies of the people, was doubtless largely based on the customary law which had arisen in the preceding centuries. It was more in the interest of the masses of the people than of the aristocratic senate that there should be a code to which all might appeal. The object was “the equalizing of liberty,” for law as opposed to the arbitrary decisions of individuals, however wise, is liberty. These laws (“fountain of public and private law,” as Livy says,) constituted the basis of the great Roman jurisprudence, and in respect of language were concise, lucid, simple, and in all respects admirable. They were cut on bronze tablets and put up in a public place. The date of their publication was B. C.

450, and we may regard this as the second founding of the Roman state. The idea of Law and the supremacy of Law did not then for the first time enter the Roman mind. Its existence was signalized and confirmed by a public act which was not only the guarantee of Roman liberty, but an important factor in the history of European civilization.

Let us now sum up this brief survey : What have we already found ? A people with deep religious instincts which lead us to expect that religious instruction and sentiment will find a prominent place in the education of children ; an almost sacred family life, with an autocratic father, but happily also with a true house-mother at its head ; a free and intensely political public life—a life in the Forum—at once cause and effect of a strong sense of that community of the social organism which is at the root of all true patriotism, a deep sense of the supremacy of law, and in connection with all this, a military life reserved as an honourable function for the true citizen. In Rome the executive authority of the magistrate, whether king, consul, dictator, or emperor, was never questioned any more than that the Council of Elders was the supreme authority. To the interests of the State as a whole every individual was prepared to sacrifice himself. This did not weaken the family idea. It was the chief glory of the leading families to have served the State nobly. "Life in the case of the Roman," says Mommsen, (11:4-8) "was spent under conditions of austere restraint, and the nobler he was the less was he a free man. All-powerful custom restricted him to a narrow range of thought and action ; and to have led a serious and strict life, or, to use a Latin expression, a grave and severe life, was his glory. Nothing more or less was expected of him than that he should keep his household in good order and unflinchingly bear his part of counsel and action in public affairs. But while the individual had neither the wish nor the power to be aught else than a member of the community, the glory and the might of that community were felt by every individual burgess as a personal possession to be

transmitted along with his name and his homestead to posterity ; and thus as one generation after another was laid in the tomb and each in succession added its fresh contribution to the stock of ancient honours, the collective sense of dignity in the noble families of Rome swelled into that mighty pride of Roman citizenship to which the earth has never perhaps witnessed a parallel, and the traces of which—strange as they are grand—seem to us whenever we meet them, to belong as it were to another world. It was one of the characteristic peculiarities of this mighty pride of citizenship that, while not suppressed, it was yet compelled by the rigid simplicity and equality that prevailed among the citizens to remain locked up within the breast during life, and was only allowed to find expression after death ; but it was displayed in the funeral of the man of distinction so intensely and conspicuously that this ceremonial is better fitted than any other phenomenon of Roman life to give to us who live in other times a glimpse of the wonderful spirit of the Romans."

But the civic and civil life of the Romans could not have sustained itself, even with the help of that respect for ancestry which was a part of the veneration for the forms as well as the life of the past, had it not been for the instinctive recognition of law as the basis of true liberty which made Rome an ever-extending and enduring power. "The Romans were distinguished," says Ihne (IV. p. 7), "from all other nations not only by the extreme earnestness and precision with which they conceived their law and worked out the consequences of its fundamental principles, but by the good sense which made them submit to the law once established, as an absolute necessity of political health and strength. It was this severity in thinking and acting which, more than any other causes, made Rome great and powerful. . . . The divine law, the elder sister of the civil law, was the pattern on which the latter was moulded. Both were characterized by the same severity, systematic order, deference to fixed formulas and fear of change."

The personal character of the Roman—The character of the

Roman is sufficiently indicated in what we have already said; but a few more words seem necessary, as the tradition of character no less than that of civic life and duty, was the main source of the education of successive generations for the first 350 years of the city's life.

In the Roman, as we have seen, a personality more intense than the Hellenic is visible. He exists not merely for the state, but the state exists in and through *him*. From the first a certain self-sufficing Stoic dignity characterizes him. Roman personality asserts itself as subordinate to the state, yet governed by the thought that the state exists through and by virtue of the individual and the family which the Father represents. The state needs the individual, and each citizen bears the burden of the civil life. The feelings of Personality, of a Regulative Will, and of obligation to Law and Duty are closely interwoven in their roots in human nature; and where they exist we should expect to find those complex virtues flourish into which Personality, Will, and a sense of Law most largely enter. These virtues are, Integrity, Courage, Resolution, Persistence, Fidelity, Justice in the sense of Law. The very naming of these ethical characteristics recalls to our minds the ancient Roman of tradition—the founder of an Empire. With such a people you expect to find great administrative ability. They are born to govern, and to conquer that they may govern. Their persistency, nay pertinacity, explains itself. Mark the saying of the proud and overbearing Roman:—

“Rome must never conclude a peace, save as victor,”

an issue of war only attainable by inflexible hardness and more of the external show than the reality of justice so far as enemies were concerned. With such a people you expect to find an equal power of subduing nature to their imperious and imperial will. Their roads, their bridges, their aqueducts, their public buildings testify to this.

As the people par-eminence of Practical Reason and governed by utilitarian conceptions, the relations of men as holders of

property, which represented to the eye of sense their personalities, are always vividly present to them, and we are not surprised to find a keen perception of relative rights, of practical justice, as between members of the same state at least, and the consequent creation of a sound jurisprudence which with the extension of the Empire becomes vast and imposing and from being civic and national becomes imperial and cosmopolitan. To the remark that Greece conquered took Rome captive by its Arts—may be aptly opposed this that Rome fallen took its victors captive by its law and still indeed holds them bound.

The beautiful, however,—art and the softer and gentler emotions—are as incompatible with such natures as a joyous delight in life for mere life's sake and in nature for nature's sake. These things are to be met with; but they are not indigenous :—even these Rome must conquer and lay its warlike hands upon and affect to enjoy.

With all their great qualities, and in perfect consistency with them, it is yet true, as Ihne says, "they were a cold, calculating, selfish people, without enthusiasm or the power of awakening enthusiasm, distinguished by self-control and an iron will rather than by the graces of character. They were proud, overbearing, cruel, and rapacious." (Vol. 1, p. 120.)

Wealth and power ultimately destroyed the Roman character as they had demoralized the Spartan and broken up the Persian empire. No nation has yet been found which has been able to resist the insidious inroads of wealth, especially when that is concentrated (as seems to be inevitable) in the hands of a small minority of the citizens. There arises a rivalry in self-indulgence and ostentation and the result is that the maintenance and advancement of the state are soon superseded by personal aims and ambitions. In presence of the appetite for self-aggrandizement the civic virtues gradually disappear and the nation is doomed. Where each seeks his own things and not also those of another the community of feeling which constitutes a commonwealth, is gone and there exists a

veiled internecine war which must make it an easy prey to external foes, unless it be saved by an internal revolution. We may, in the passing fashion of the hour, talk of a state being an organism, but, after all, it is a mass of individuals and it is only by the education of these individuals and the sanctity of the family, that we can hope permanently to sustain public virtue.

What means now did the Roman take for maintaining his greatness, by educating those who were to bear the burden of the state after their fathers had passed away?

S. S. Laurie

University of Edinburgh

NOMENCLATURE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

It would be hard to find a finer example of the American contempt for tradition—so often another name for order—than in the hap-hazard nomenclature in secondary schools. One might expect that just as the colleges early established names for their classes, so the preparatory schools would follow, perhaps, the English lines; and once adopting, even in a few New England communities, a set of descriptive terms, would unite upon a common system, to be copied naturally by all the schools of the country. This, however, was not the case. Schools of a kindred character, even in the same commonwealth, evidently cut loose from each other in the matter of class names, and set forevermore the vicious habit of establishing in each school a nomenclature peculiar unto itself. That the practice endures to this day need not be urged upon men and women engaged in this work. It is one of the curiosities of our "system"; an evidence of our national amiability; a serious check, in fine, upon the development of secondary school programmes.

In any attempt to investigate the real condition of things, it was necessary to secure data from all parts of the country. The following request was, therefore, sent to several hundred institutions, including many public high schools, and nearly all

the representative endowed private schools in the United States :

"In the interest of secondary school statistics, will you kindly inform me by what names the classes of your school are known? The uncertainty felt as to the application of the terms *senior, junior, first class, second class, form, grade*, etc., makes it frequently difficult to discuss educational measures.

"This inquiry is sent to all the leading preparatory schools of the country ; and if, by filling out the enclosed form and sending circular or catalogue, you can assist in making the results complete, the favor would be greatly appreciated."

The fruits of the enquiry were as interesting as they were complex. Answers were received from every state in the Union, and the combinations were so various that it would be almost impossible to display them within the limits of this article. In three hundred schools there were at least one hundred distinct systems ; and in one hundred and fifty of these schools, selected with reference to their enjoyment of special state or national reputation, sixty-eight systems were in use, with no further reduction possible save by the most radical concessions.

Of these 150 schools,

Some arrangement of Sr.				Jr.	etc.	etc.	was used by 73
The	"	" 1		2	3	4	" " " 21
"	"	" 4		3	2	1	" " " 15
"	"	" 6		5	4	3	" " " 18
"	"	" 5		4	3	2	" " " 4
"	"	" 8		7	6	5	" " " 3
"	"	" 12		11	10	9	" " " 1
"	"	" A		B	C	D	" " " 3
"	"	" D		C	B	A	" " " 1
"	"	" Extra		1	2	3	" " " 2
"	"	" Upper Prima		Lower Prima	Secunda	Tertia	" " " 1
"	"	" 6 ¹		6 ¹	5 ²	5 ¹	" " " 1
"	"	" 1 A		1 B	2nd	3rd	" " " 1
"	"	" 2nd Higher		1st Higher	2nd Lower	3rd Lower	" " " 1

The most conspicuous alien in the group is the last ; and this comes curiously enough from an Academy under the direction of one of our newest and wealthiest universities, from which we are accustomed to expect the latest word in all departments of educational science.

That an "arrangement" of Senior, Junior, etc., was used by 78 schools, seems encouraging, until we discover that the modifications are such as to break the one large group into 30 small ones !

Of the 78 schools inclined to use Senior, Junior, etc.,

an arrangement of Sr.	Jr.	Soph.	Freshman was used by	17
" " Sr.	Jr.	2nd	1st	" " " 11
" " Sr.	Jr.	1st	2nd	" " " 2
" " Sr.	Jr.	3rd	4th	" " " 4
" " Sr.	Sr. Middle	Jr. Middle	Jr.	" " " 5
" " Sr.	Middle	Jr.	Prep.	" " " 5

and so on through twenty-four other methods—no system having more than two adherents, and several of the great schools standing absolutely alone.

To show specifically the present chaos, one might select for example :

The Roxbury Latin, using	1	2	3	4	5	6
St. Paul's Concord, "	6	5	4	3	2	1
Lawrenceville, "	4	3	2	1	(Shell)	
Phillips, Andover, "	Sr.	Mid.	Jr. Mid.	Jr.		
Phillips, Exeter, "	Sr.	Mid.	Jr.	Prep.		
Adelphi, Brooklyn, "	Sr.	Sr. Mid.	Jr. Mid.	Jr.		
Packer Institute, "	Jr.	1st Acad.	2d Acad.	3d Acad.		
Hotchkiss, Conn., "	Sr.	Upper Mid.	Lower Mid.	Jr.		
Berkeley, N. Y., "	Sr. I.	Sr. II.	Upper Mid. I.	Upper Mid. II.		
Norwich Free Acad. "	Sr.	1st. Mid.	2d. Mid.	Jr.		
Hopkins Gram.Sch., "	Sr.	Jr.	3d.	4th.		
New Haven, "	Sr.	Jr.	2d.	1st.		
Albany High School, "	Sr.	Jr.	2d.	1st.		

It would be interesting to watch the mental antics of twelve scholars from these schools endeavoring to co-ordinate themselves !

What the best arrangement would be, seems obvious. Twenty-one of the 150 prominent schools designate their high-

est class as the First Grade Class, or Form, and so on with 2, 3, 4, 5, etc.; and assuming always that the highest class in any reasonable secondary school, is the one closely articulated with the Freshman Class of a reasonable college, it would be easy to adopt this system in nearly all the schools considered in this enquiry.

Roxbury could go on as at present; St. Paul's, reverse; Lawrenceville, use numbers to include even the Shell. The two Phillips—of all schools the ones that are expected to agree in matters like this—could employ four; while schools, like the Adelphi and Packer, organized to include Grammar and Primary Classes, could go on as far as necessary without obscuring the definition of the four or five upper years, where the need of accuracy is now so great. Recognizing the fact that systems of education begin properly at the top (the University) and not at the bottom, the logic of this arrangement may be better seen. And it has the advantage of possible extension from one to ten or twelve, as circumstances require. To some extent it follows the German Gymnasium plan—in the use of which there is almost absolute accuracy and uniformity—but it is an improvement on the German, in having no divided upper classes.

That uniformity in the nomenclature of our classes is desirable, will hardly be denied; and at the beginning of a great readjustment of secondary curricula, such a reform would be opportune and easy. It involves no violence to any dear traditions; no changes in essentials; no disarrangement of classes; but requires the mere adoption of names by which, as in any science, men may quickly and accurately compare, classify and extend their knowledge.

Frederick E. Partington

Staten Island Academy, New Brighton, N. Y.

WHY NOT MORE STATE AID TO ACADEMIES IN NEW YORK STATE?

There has been an unexampled growth in the number of schools, and the number of students sharing in the literature fund. As a result each year the schools have received less and

less of what they should naturally expect. New York can well afford to make up each year any deficiency caused by the success of our secondary schools. Four-fifths of the teachers of the State go through them, and when New York is giving \$5,000,000 for the common school department, and so large a sum for the training of teachers in normal schools, it obviously ought to encourage the secondary schools in their great work of educating those who are to be our teachers in most cases.

The following act has been introduced in the Legislature, and fortunately seems in a fair way to become a law. It certainly will have the approval of all who understand the best interests of our school system.

The people of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows :

§ 1. \$25,000, or so much thereof as may be necessary, is hereby appropriated from any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, to enable the Comptroller to pay to each academic department of a union school, or other institution entitled to share in the annual apportionment of the literature fund, whatever sum was deducted in the recent apportionment from the amount the school should have received under the rules for apportionment had the available funds not been exhausted because of the growth in the number of schools and increase in the number of pupils entitled to be counted in such apportionment.

§ 2. In addition to the amount now apportioned to academic schools, in accordance with the laws of 1892, chapter 378, § 26, there shall be paid each year \$100 to each school of academic grade certified to the Comptroller by the Regents of the University as having complied with all laws and ordinances during the preceding academic year, and as being entitled to share in the academic fund, and there shall be added each year to the appropriation required by law to be made for the academic fund, such sum as the Comptroller shall report as necessary to carry out the provisions of this act, and to make up any deficiency in the income of the literature fund, so that each school may receive the full amount to which it is entitled by the University ordinances, notwithstanding any increase in the number of schools or pupils to which such apportionment must be made.

§ 3. This act shall take effect immediately.

PROGRAMME OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

FOR THE MEETING OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION
IN DENVER

PROGRAMME

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 10TH, 3 P. M.

- 1.—President's Address. Wm. H. Smiley, Principal High School, District Number One, Denver, Col.
- 2.—Should Electives in High Schools be in Courses or Subjects? Paper by O. D. Robinson, Principal of the High School, Albany, New York.
Discussion led by F. W. Atkinson, Principal of High School, Springfield, Mass.
- 3.—What Action Ought to be Taken by Universities and Secondary Schools to Promote the Introduction of the Programmes Recommended by the Committee of Ten?
By Universities. Paper by Prof. Wm. Carey Jones, University of California.
By Secondary Schools. Paper by F. L. Bliss, Principal High School, Detroit, Mich.
- 4.—Discussion led by Prof. B. A. Hinsdale, University of Michigan.
- 5.—Appointments of Committees and Miscellaneous Business.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 11TH, 3 P. M.

- 1.—First Year Science in High Schools, its Possibilities and Difficulties.
Paper on Biology by O. S. Westcott, Principal of the North Division High School, Chicago Ill.
Paper on Physical Geography by Edward L. Harris, Principal of the Central High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
- 2.—Do not the Recommendations Made by the Head Masters' Association Concerning Certain Admission Requirements in Latin and Greek Deserve Prompt and General Adoption by the Colleges?
Paper by James C. Mackenzie, Head Master Lawrenceville School, New Jersey. General Discussion. (For the Recommendations see below.)
- 3.—Opportunities for Ethical Instruction. Paper by B. C. Mathews, High School, Newark, New Jersey.
- 4.—Reports of Committees and Election of Officers.

At the third annual meeting of the Head Masters' Association, held in Boston, December 27th and 28th, 1894, the following resolutions were passed, and the Secretary was instructed to send a copy of them to the Secretaries of the leading Educational Associations of the country. It is proper to state that these resolutions were passed primarily as an expression of opinion on the

part of the Head Masters, with regard to some matters which they deem of large importance to the secondary and collegiate education of the country :

THE RESOLUTIONS

1. It is desirable that such colleges as prescribe the reading of certain books in Latin, as a condition of admission, should introduce more variety of reading into their requirements. For example, some part of Nepos might be required as an equivalent for one or more books of Caesar's Gallic War ; some part of Ovid as an equivalent for a portion of Vergil ; selections from Cicero's Letters, or other writings, as an equivalent for one or more orations.

2. It is desirable, both as a guide for teachers and for the sake of uniformity in the reading preparation for college, that colleges admitting candidates by certificate, and others admitting mainly on examinations in reading "at sight," should recommend a course of reading in Latin for preparatory schools. If, moreover, such colleges would unite with those having definite requirements, in a recommended course of reading, the gain to preparatory schools would be great.

3. Both in the case of prescribed and recommended reading, it is desirable that changes be made from time to time after due notice, as is now done by the Associated New England Colleges in regard to English, French, and German.

4. It is desirable that the colleges should recommend that some months be spent in reading easy Latin, both modern and classic, before authors of the difficulty of Nepos and Caesar are taken up. Such a recommendation from the colleges would have great weight with secondary schools ; would, if followed, diminish difficulties and discouragements in the earlier part of the Latin course, and tend to the improvement of elementary teaching.

5. The writing of Latin, based on certain prescribed and limited portions of Latin text, to be changed from time to time, ought to be made a part of college entrance examinations wherever Latin is prescribed for admission.

6. The foregoing five recommendations ought to be made in regard to Greek, so far as they are applicable.

7. The requirement that parts of Homer be read, in preparation for college, ought to be maintained, but the examination ought not to be confined to books of the Iliad.

8. It is desirable that the colleges designate the more important subjects of grammar, both Greek and Latin, in which students come up to college poorly grounded.

9. It is the opinion of this Association that passages set for sight translation, particularly in Cicero's Orations, are often too difficult, considering the circumstances of the entrance examinations.

COMMUNICATION

THE INDUCTIVE METHOD AGAIN

Professor Wheeler's application of the principle involved in the familiar quotation, *ex uno disce omnes*, to condemn the natural or inductive method of teaching languages, recalls to my mind an incident related to me by a friend before this method had been heard of, at least in his locality. A boy applied to him to be examined in the Anabasis. Having been given a passage on the third or fourth page, and a few minutes to con it, he reported that he thought he could manage it, except one word, and that was *zui*. It was a plain case of ignorance and fright. Comment is needless. Against stupidity the very gods contend in vain.

Chas. W. Super

Ohio University

BOOK REVIEWS

NEW FRENCH TEXT BOOKS

We have come to have a well-grounded suspicion of ponderous quarto treatises, simplifying the French verb for youthful readers, so we took up *The French Verb Newly Treated*, by A. Esclançon (Macmillan, \$1.25), with no great enthusiasm. We are the more glad to say that the work has merits that will recommend it to teachers of French. The diagrammatic treatment of the verb far surpasses in simplicity and completeness anything of which we know. Most teachers will be glad to give this scheme to their scholars. Each verb has its idiomatic and unusual uses lucidly explained on its own particular page, where more is given than can be easily found outside of Littré, and of course nothing can be found easily inside that monumental work. Teachers of French, we are sure, will find this work suggestive and helpful, and, properly treated, really tending towards simplification, spite of its 200 pages.

The Contemporary French Writers, by Mlle. Rosine Mellé (Ginn), purports, in a space of 174 pages, to give biographical sketches of no less than twenty-five writers, with selections illustrative of their several styles, the selections having the greater amount of space. The purpose of the work is most commendable; but to state the plan is also to state the criticism. The ordinary class, and even quite an extraordinary class, would be sure to find it scrappy.

Morceaux Choisis D'Alphonse Daudet, edited by Frank W. Freeborn (Ginn) is just the opposite sort from the above, and a better sort we think it. The first third of the book is given over to the immortal and inimitable Tartarin, for whose acquaintance the young men and maidens who are given this book as a text will be forever grateful. The other selections are good, the final forty pages being given to *La Belle Nivernaise*. The notes are serviceable. Needless to say the text is not suitable for beginners. It is not simplified. But students who have gotten facility in easy reading could hardly have anything better.

A new reader for beginners need not necessarily be superior to those already in the field to gain a constituency. Teachers

who are contented to go over the same simple pieces for many successive years are getting rarer. The species will not soon disappear utterly, perhaps, but there are grounds to hope that ere too long it will pass into the realm of pedagogical paleontology. These reflections are suggested by *An Introduction to French Authors*, by Alphonse N. Van Daell. (Ginn.) The editor is a most accomplished teacher of modern languages, with a rich experience to qualify him for his work. The book has two parts, the first in plan not much unlike other readers, though none of the old favorites are there; the second devoted to the geography, history, and government of France. The author says, "many young students must believe that the only books worth reading in French are novels and plays," and is "convinced that it is far better to awaken their dormant curiosity for history, for all the higher forms of French literature." Better than what? The aim of teaching French must remain in our secondary schools to impart a useful reading knowledge, and the best way yet discovered to this end is much reading. It may be heresy, but it seems truth, that young students will read more of what interests them than of what is directed towards arousing a dormant curiosity. Pedagogically and personally we prefer a live interest to anything dormant whatever. And we therefore fear that Professor Van Daell's very excellent second part may not be so useful as he fondly hopes.

Another work from the same editor, but of quite a different kind, is *Extraits Choisis des Oeuvres de Paul Bourget*, also published by Ginn & Co. The book is intended for advanced classes, and the notes are few. M. Bourget has contributed an autobiographical introduction, in which he explains and analyses himself on scientific principles.

The new edition of Victor Hugo's *Hernani*, edited by Professor George McLean Harper (Henry Holt & Co.), seems to be in no way superior to others already available, while the printing of the French text is distinctly bad. The series of selections from modern French authors, edited by Professor E. H. Magill, of Swarthmore College (Chris. Sower Co., Philadelphia), has distinctly good features. The editor says (preface to vol. 1): "It should never be forgotten that intelligent and fluent translation, or understanding the text without translation, is the great object of this study (*i. e.* of French), and that it is not a wise expenditure of time to attempt to impart a writing and speaking knowledge of French in school and

college." Not all agree with this view, but many do, and for the latter these books are good. The notes are fairly copious. Vol. I. is devoted to Francisque Sarcey, Vol. II. to Madame De Witt (*nee* Guizot), Vol. III. to Anatole France, who is represented "by La Fille de Clementine, ou Le Crime de Sylvestre Bonnard." These volumes contain nothing that is dull. *An Academic French Course* by A. Muzzarelli (Am. Book Co.), is the latest candidate for favor in the way of a beginner's book. The author's name does not prepare us for his declaration of faith that "An experience of fifteen years in teaching of modern languages has convinced him that the much-vaunted natural method is totally inapplicable in schools," but the declaration will meet with wide agreement. The work is attractively gotten up, and has merits that will doubtless win for it a good share of public favor. Anthologies are doubtless indispensable, therefore let us be grateful for so good a one as the select specimens of the Great French Writers in the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries, by G. Eugene Fastnacht. (Macmillan & Co.) The authors chosen are those "who tower head and shoulders above their contemporaries," while the most eminent French critics have been called upon for estimates of the authors, which estimates form by no means the least valuable part of the volume. The classical period has the more attention by far. For very advanced students, especially for teachers, this work will be most serviceable.

In concluding this notice, which covers, and can cover, only a portion of the works that have recently appeared in this field, we are impressed with the fact that the teacher of French now has an embarrassment of riches. He is in many respects most favored among his kind, for it is possible now, as it was not at a time within the memory of man, to have a new text which shall interest and stimulate him for almost every class. Dull repetition is henceforth inexcusable.

C. H. Thurber

The History of the English Language. By OLIVER FARRAR EMERSON, A. M., Ph. D., Assistant Professor of Rhetoric and English Philology in Cornell University. Pp. 415. New York and London: Macmillan & Co., 1894.

The need of a new manual of the history of our language may not be apparent; but that Professor Emerson's book is timely the first glance suffices to show. The table of contents indi-

cates a comprehensive treatment desiderated both by the college student and by the secondary teacher of English who is not strictly a specialist; the index, a copiousness of illustration that must prove to be stimulating and reassuring—reassuring in that compends ordinarily “teach not their own use,” since they often fail to intimate even how large or how important are the bodies of facts they summarize. The mass of material indicated by the contents and the index, Professor Emerson’s sure scholarship and tact as a teacher, have clearly and effectively disposed within the compass of not quite four hundred pages of text. Full and concise, in scholarship both broad and accurate, this book makes a place for itself and will commend itself as a vademecum to every secondary teacher of English.

The distinction belonging to Professor Emerson’s work has already been suggested; it is, so far as a volume of its size can be, self-sufficing, and it is self-effectuating. Whether language be considered absolutely or as a phase of human development, the work under review is the best and most practical introduction of the study of the history of language. For at every step it appeals to the reasoning, thinking mind, by presenting a generous selection of historical documents and a wisely chosen body of etymological illustrations. The student who examines as a student should examine these documents and illustrations will find the study of the book to be a serious and valuable discipline, and will gradually come to recognize the history of language as a proper and important subject for inquiry and contemplation. The appeal of the history of language for such recognition is in this book made more directly, more constantly, and indeed with greater dignity than in any other work on the subject. Less than with any similar book equally scientific, will the learner or reader be inclined to sum up his experience by uttering sadly Goethe’s words: “*Wie lange muss man erst thun, bis man weiss, wie und was man thue.*”

It must be admitted that in some points the author’s style is not quite what we should like to see; his acumen often fails him when he comes to express himself. The paragraphs are marshalled according to a strict rationale, but the single paragraphs are within themselves often obscure and bewildering, because of a certain diffuse light, such as one expects in meditative prose, but does not tolerate in a scientific exposition. The author is, above all, careless in the use of particles, and of the other means of making clear a sentence or a sentence-sequence in an analytical language such as our own. Here are

three instances found at one opening of the book: ¶ 52, l. 1, *now* is not clear, and l. 14 *the* should be supplied before *one* (? or *century* after *important*, l. 16); ¶ 53, l. 12, *which* has two possible antecedents. Other instances that may roughly be classified here, are: ¶ 8, l. 6, *other*; ¶ 127, l. 8, *any more* (? *even less*!); last text line of p. 162 (¶ 172), *if*, and the third line just above, *in another way*; ¶ 265, l. 10, *both FATHER and* (should properly be in parentheses?); ¶ 305, l. 8, *sound law* (? *sound-law*) ¶ 326, l. 11, *while* (has a slight tendency to classify Danish as Low Germanic?). ¶ 368, last sentence, *MORE and MOST* is a single concept, and the sentence will be clearer if the expression be so treated; ¶ 437 and 438, not connected properly (?). Petty as such things are, they cause the reader to stumble, sometimes even seriously; e. g., ¶ 252, ll. 3-4 (unless the sentence be recast for the sake of euphony) supply *respectively* after *become* (?) and put *and* for the first, or for the second comma, immediately following; ¶ 294, l. 24, supply *either* before *free*; ¶ 451, l. 11, insert *the preterit of the* before *strong* (the omission leaves a positive misstatement). A few paragraphs (¶ 199 for example) are, however, models of exposition, and a style a little too colorless is occasionally brightened by such a felicity as that with which ¶ 194 closes: ["the written word"] is at best a stereotyped picture, often much conventionalized."

Exception may be taken to a few little things on pedagogical grounds. In ¶ 15, the sign for vocalic *r* is used without any explanation of the sign either here or elsewhere in the book (see also ¶ 279). ¶ 55, l. 4: "It has already been noted, etc."—where? not in ¶ 54, l. 30-2! In the last line but one of ¶ 98, the part of speech to which "*attemptat* 'attempt'" belongs should have been noted. The opening statement of ¶ 268 is unfortunate; the student might be led to believe the *h* and *g* of the Old English table to be the "sounds actually preserved" in the *sh* and *zh* of the modern English table; if he turned the page, his mind would, to be sure, be disabused, but why not forestall (by the use of an asterisk or of brackets any such misconception?) In ¶ 436, the second part of the first sentence is needless and bewildering. In the first sentence of the second part of ¶ 438, *weak* is used for *regular*—a case of confusion so absurd that it is undoubtedly due to a slip of the pen.

Misprints are: ¶ 12, l. 12, *hwn*, (due, apparently, to the writer's momentary confusion of etymology and phonetics);

¶ 15, l. 24, *λψ's* for *λψ* (actual form of theoretical * *λψ-s*);
 ¶ 231, l. 7, *w* should be expunged (?); ¶ 261, l. 4, *groove* for
grove (*Lat. nemus*); last line of ¶ 347, *ca* has dropped out;
 ¶ 372, *tw æ m* should have vowel marked long; ¶ 468, l. 7,
when evidently for *where* (see end of the paragraph). In ¶ 462,
 l. 19, *psychological* may be a misspelling for *physicological*,
 but it is more likely to be a misprint for *psychological*.

Thus far errors, real or supposed, have been pointed out boldly and freely because the book is sound and deserves a searching examination that shall look to its further perfection and promotion. It is with the utmost diffidence, however, that the present writer calls attention to certain other matters intrinsically of greater moment as affecting the real character of the work. The author has no doubt done well to emphasize the continuity of our speech history, but has he not gone too far in minimizing the Norman influence?—to say nothing of something like a suggestion of condescension in his references to Freeman and Stubbs in the Introduction! He cites inappositely Chaucer's reference to the prioress's French; one is tempted to quote Skeat (*Oxford Chaucer*, vol. V., p. 15), but the castigation there given is too undignified and severe for our case, except in so far as our author is one of the "critics who ought to be more careful" in regard to upholding scolists in imputing to Chaucer an invidious comparison between the "Frensh of Paris" and that "after the scole of Stratford atte Bowe". Again, the author comes near controverting himself: if, as he holds in ¶ 141, the regret that English has lost compounds and the power of forming compounds is unwise, can he deny that the modern English equivalents for both thing and process are due to French influence as much (certainly) as to "the analytical tendency of the language"?—The statement with reference to the nature of the Revival of Learning, altogether misleading as made in ¶ 131, is properly modified when repeated in ¶ 156; but even then it seems out of place.—The author's representation of the relations of cognate languages by overlapping circles is after all open to as much objection as is the older representation by a branching tree.—It seems but just that the reference (¶ 116) to Webster's *American Dictionary of the English Language*, should (at least in a footnote) be supplemented by the mention of Webster's *International*.—¶ 380, l. 4, is directly contradicted by Roby for the Latin, and it is probably just as untrue for the Greek. That Shakespeare's distinction between *thou* and *you* is not by him "consistently"

carried out, is here really no point at all. —Doesn't the last sentence but one of ¶ 323 take rather advanced ground on the subject of the split infinitive? And *is* the relative *that* "the only relative in colloquial use" (¶ 399)?—"The French *c'est moi*" is in ¶ 382 pressed too hard; when will writers on the subject of English "it is me" use the French illustration with due insight into the idiom of both languages?

It is so much easier to pick little flaws here and there than to praise worthily the many details worthy of praise. But a few of these details must not be allowed to pass unmentioned. Chapters XII–XIV. are a marvellously clear and simple summing up of the elements of English phonology; these three chapters would alone establish the book in high favor. Scarcely less commendable is the happily full and exact treatment of Grimm's and Verner's laws. The index contains about 3,000 entries, many of them with several references; this in itself makes the book invaluable. The book is truly a notable achievement, and one is the more impressed with this fact when one reflects that the book is after all only an earnest of what its author will yet do.

Guido H. Stempel

Indiana University

Methods of Education in the United States, by ALICE ZIMMERN. Macmillan & Co., N. Y. \$1.00.

This book is the result of a very short educational pilgrimage undertaken by a clever English teacher under the direction of the Gilchrist trustees. One of the most encouraging symptoms in English education is the increasing tendency to study the school system of the United States. And it is interesting and helpful for us to note how far they look upon us as a bright and shining light, and how far as a warning beacon. Miss Zimmern finds in us both these optical characteristics. She is a dispassionate and usually clear observer, who writes with no other purpose than to tell the truth. Some of the truth she tells is not new to thoughtful teachers here, but it is always helpful to see ourselves as others see us. The interest of the book for us is in this mirror it holds up to nature. In the grammar schools she finds it strange that neither Latin nor modern languages are taught. The penmanship seems very inferior. American boys and girls seem expected to work much harder than English. Coming to the high school she finds that "with an elementary system that teaches no Latin, and, as a rule, no modern language, when children reach the age of fourteen or fifteen with-

out going beyond the limits of United States history, and where, in many places, science has no place at all, the work left for the high school is very great. The demands of the various colleges are conflicting, and even the demands of the same college differ according to the nature of the course to be pursued by the student. When schools are small the difficulty becomes a serious one. Hence there is much discontent expressed in schools with college requirements. To an outsider these difficulties seem vexatious and useless, (to many an insider, too!) Surely an examination like that of Girton and Newnham, with a few elementary compulsory subjects, and a choice of one or two advanced, would be enough to show that the student was fit to enter, and it would rest with the college to see that he did not leave without submitting to such tests as should prove his ripened scholarship. The teacher receives a starvation wage, which may be all she is worth, seeing that she has perhaps never even attended high school, but is certainly not such as to attract good teachers. The average salaries in American schools are low, and here our observer is led into one of her few serious errors, for she says the reason why salaries are low in small towns is because they are high in large cities. Had she known a little more of the way in which the money for school purposes is raised she would not have been guilty of this fault. Of our system of superintendence she has this to say: "It is believed that careful supervision and superintendence may do much towards obtaining good work from a merely average teacher; and as the great majority of the American teachers are untrained, and may have had no teaching beyond that of the high school, and not always that, some such system is absolutely necessary to keep up the standard of work. It appears on the whole to work well and economically, though it is impossible that it should not sometimes be galling for a really capable teacher to have to follow such minute directions as are laid down in many of the courses of study."

Private schools have a chapter very much to their credit. On a point of which the SCHOOL REVIEW has had somewhat to say, there is this contribution: "In America as in England the question is sometimes raised, Ought not the state to take some cognizance of the schools that are not under government control? And the answer has as yet always been in the negative. I am not aware that any such proposal as that in our Teachers' Registration Bills has yet been made; indeed, such

a scheme could not be worked in the States without much alteration in the present system, under which license to teach in one state does not apply to any other; nor is there a plan on any large scale like that of our local examinations, which enables schools to compare their standards and the public to gain some notion of results. The Regents of the University of the State of New York have done something in this direction, but it applies chiefly to public schools. Harvard has also instituted a sort of "local examination," which is taken by some private schools. Occasionally a State University—for instance, Michigan—undertakes to inspect the school, whose graduates it exempts from entrance examination; but this, too, applies chiefly to public schools.

A large and valuable part of the book is taken up with a description of the methods of teaching. This brief notice of a really suggestive résumé of ourselves may perhaps best be closed by quoting an artless remark that may well set several of us to thinking: "It is interesting to note that those schools whose curriculum is specially directed towards preparation for college are not those that do the best work in literature. They are to some extent hampered by the entrance examination. Set books for outside examinations must always to some extent cramp the work, besides introducing the necessity of different work for different colleges."

C. H. Thurber

Elementary Composition and Rhetoric. By WILLIAM EDWARD MEAD, Ph. D., Professor of the English Language in Wesleyan University. Boston, New York and Chicago: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.

The present tendency in text-books of rhetoric is to minimize theory and to add practical exercises in composition. Both of these are found in admirable measure in the excellent book of Professor Mead. It consists of two parts—theory, from page 6 to 192, and practice from page 193 to 277. The part devoted to theory has chapters treating words, sentences, paragraphs, the theme, kinds of composition, composition and revision and style. Figures of speech, which take so large a part of many treatises, are here placed somewhat irregularly under words. But practical suggestions in all these chapters are to be commended for their usefulness, particularly to young writers. Especially worthy of note are the pages in the first chapter relating to changes in English and to borrowed words, and the section treating grammatical concord in the chapter on

sentences. The chapter on the paragraph, though good, might have distinguished different kinds of paragraphs to advantage. In the remaining portion of part I. the discussion of theme writing in several chapters is commendable for its valuable hints.

Part II., besides having examples illustrating the early chapters of the book, consists of plans for essays of various kinds with numerous subjects for similar treatment. One chapter, called studies in literature, is designed to assist students in preparing for the college examinations in English, and will be found particularly helpful in secondary schools.

On the whole, Mead's Rhetoric may be commended as eminently practical, and one that will be found useful and instructive wherever used.

Oliver Farrar Emerson

Cornell University

Cicero: By J. L. STRACHAN-DAVIDSON. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Readable trustworthy books about Cicero are not numerous in the English language, and for that reason this book will be eagerly read.

One's attention is first drawn to the large number of excellent illustrations. There are nearly thirty, most of them from Duruy's History of Rome, all delightful and all appropriate. The appearance of the book is very pleasing throughout, and is uniform with the rest of the series, *Heroes of the Nations*.

It is not an easy undertaking within the limits of about four hundred and thirty pages to tell the story of Cicero's life, connected as it is with so much that is important and interesting in the history of the great city; there are so many temptations to turn aside in pursuit of alluring themes. But the author has maintained a very steady course and has displayed good judgment in the selection of topics to be emphasized and of those to be more lightly passed over.

A noticeable characteristic of this sketch is the extent to which Cicero is made to tell his own story by selections from his orations and letters, and it must be added that the translations are quite unique in point of vigor and originality. One can not fail to notice the multitude of historical incidents and Roman customs in religion, social life, and politics, which are skilfully woven into the narrative, and are made to have a vital connection with the rest of the book.

The writer has evidently thought out his own opinions, and this it is that gives life to what might so easily be simply a dry collection of facts. The book is everywhere interesting, suggestive, and stimulating.

Not all people will accept all the statements in regard to what Caesar might and might not have accomplished in the way of preserving the republic, yet the discussion is not at all lacking in interest.

The extreme prejudice and partizan bias which disfigure the pages of Middleton, Forsyth, and Trollope, and destroy one's confidence in their critical estimates are in the main lacking here, and for this reason, if for no other, classical teachers will read this biography with pleasure.

As might be expected, the author's natural fondness for his subject occasionally carries him a little too far, as when he undertakes to show that Cicero did not mean what he wrote in his letter to Lucceius, in which he asks that historian not to confine himself entirely to bare facts in his treatment of the consulship so dear to Cicero's heart. It is better to stand in silent sorrow before such passages than to endeavor to show that black is a shade of white. Still the writer has done so much better than others in this respect that these excesses ought to be forgiven, if not overlooked.

As a whole the book is a rare treat and in its particular province is not likely soon to be supplanted. Would that all the eminent characters of antiquity had as good biographies. Then indeed we might "keep them before us in the midst of life's duties and mould our thoughts and feelings by reflecting upon the lives of those distinguished men."

Frank A. Gallup

Colgate Academy

First Latin Readings. By ROBERT ARROWSMITH and GEORGE M. WHICHER. New York: American Book Company.

This book is intended for the use of teachers who wish for their students a more varied reading than the usual course provides.

The selections are from Eutropius, Aulus Gellius, Cornelius Nepos, Caesar, Cicero, and Livy.

The authors seem to have drawn too freely from the Gallic War, unless it is assumed that the consecutive reading of Caesar is to be abandoned altogether, a fate not likely soon to overtake the commentaries, because of the firm hold which they

have secured. Cicero, however, is represented by only nine pages, taken from *De Natura Deorum* and *De Divinatione*, and there are about fourteen pages from Book I. and Book II. of Livy. Most of the text, therefore, the student is not likely to meet elsewhere, and for this reason alone the book deserves encouragement; for students ought to have some acquaintance, even if it must be very slight, with more than four or five of the authors which are usually assigned to secondary schools.

An excellent feature, and one that should be found in every book intended for use in preparatory schools, is the marking of the long vowels. Some mistakes occur, but most of them are easily distinguishable. The grouping of compound verbs in the vocabulary under the simple verb from which they are formed can not fail to be of assistance to the student.

Whether the selections have been wisely made, whether the vocabulary is adequate, and whether the book as a whole is desirable, must, of course, be decided by each teacher in accordance with the uses which he wishes it to serve; but that it is a step in the right direction cannot be questioned.

F. A. Gallup

Colgate Academy

The Technique of the Drama. By GUSTAV FREYTAG; translation by E. J. MACEWAN. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1895; 366 p. Price \$1.50.

This translation of a book that for nearly thirty years has been well-nigh classic in Germany, marks quite an advance in equipment for the study of dramatic science in our country. It is quite different from Schlegel's *Dramatic Literature*, the object of which was to give a general view of the drama in various ages and nations, and to develop ideas in accordance with which dramatic productions should be judged. Furthermore, Schlegel's book is based almost entirely on productions prior to the great German dramas. Freytag's purpose was to study the drama objectively in an endeavor to formulate the scientific principles underlying its construction. Realizing that some of the fundamental laws of dramatic production have remained in force for centuries, the author naturally goes back to the principles of Aristotle. Although paying all honor to Lessing for the work he did in his *Hamburgische Dramaturgie*, he maintains that the present age has more abundant means for the study and explanation of the Greek system, and should, therefore, go back to the original source itself, *i.e.*, the extant

plays of the great poets. Beginning with this point, Freytag shows what these principles were, and then how they have been modified by the changes that have taken place in the nature of man and of society. The next epoch after the Greek worthy of study in the search after technical dramatic laws is that of Shakespeare, and after him come the great German poets, all of whom he greatly influenced. Therefore the examples brought into the book to illustrate the application or lack of application of the principles the author propounds are taken from the familiar dramas of Sophocles, Shakespeare, Lessing, Goethe, and Schiller. The book will prove very helpful in the criticism and in the production of dramas. In reading it one is reminded of a more recent treatise on a somewhat similar subject—Scherer's *Poetik* lectures at Berlin in 1885—which is not confined to the drama, but deals with the essence of poetry in general. The translation is a faithful reproduction of the original, and to it there is prefixed a short biographical note sufficient to give one some idea of Freytag and his work. A thorough index is now in the hands of the printer, and will be added to the book at once.

R. W. Moore

Colgate University

Lecture Notes on General Chemistry—Non-Metals. By J. F. MCGREGORY, A. M., F. C. S., Professor of Chemistry in Colgate University. Hamilton, N. Y.: Republican Power Print. 1894.

The subject of how to begin a course in chemistry has been productive of a great amount of discussion, and so many teachers have found it necessary to prepare text-books for the use of their own classes, that there are probably more works published for beginners in chemistry than on any other subject. And as far as they contribute to the solution of a difficult problem, they are welcome. The chief difficulty is that the study of chemistry is usually a student's first introduction to natural science, and all his previous methods of thought must be revolutionized. The various methods of opening the subject class themselves roughly into two groups. In one, substances and changes, more or less familiar to the student, such as air, water, coal, and their reactions, are first studied, and from the consideration of these the student is gradually led up to the principles and theories of the science. In the other, the general principles are laid down at the start, even though they

only later become thoroughly understood, and after this their applications become apparent in the systematic study of the elements. There are also represented in text books many compromises between the two methods.

In the work under consideration the author has pursued the second course. We believe Professor McGregory is right in using this method, especially for college students. The general idea of the Atomic Theory is perhaps difficult to grasp, but with a knowledge of it the after-work becomes much simpler and clearer, and indeed it is questionable if it be not easier to grasp the Atomic Theory before the mind has become obscured by a study of mass reactions.

The book does well what it attempts. With it in hand the student can give close attention to the lectures of the instructor, not losing important points in the effort to take notes, resting assured that all the essentials are to be found in the "Lecture Notes." At the same time the book is not burdened with descriptions of experiments, telling the student what he ought to see. The student should be expected to write out for himself what he sees in the experiment, thus affording the instructor an opportunity of judging his work, and of setting him right when he is astray.

The book is brought well down to date, and adopts the spelling of chemical terms recommended by the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and used by the new Standard Dictionary.

James Lewis Howe

Washington and Lee University

Elementary Algebra. By C. SMITH. Revised and adapted to American schools, by IRVING STRINGHAM, Ph. D., Professor of Mathematics in California University. Macmillan & Co., London and New York; pp. 408. Price \$1.10.

Mr. Smith's algebras are among the best in the English language. His *Elementary Algebra* has been before the public for some time, and has been very favorably criticised.

Among the many excellencies of this American edition, are the introductory lessons by Professor Stringham. These are intended to form a natural bridge between arithmetic and algebra. Factoring is made prominent, and is considered fundamental in solving equations of higher degree. The explanations are, for the most part, clear and abundant, though not always direct and concise. Subtraction and division are made

easy by regarding these processes as the reverse of addition and multiplication respectively.

In some ways, however, this algebra does not satisfy the demands of the best teachers. The first, and possibly the most objectionable fault, is the point of view from which algebra is treated. Algebra is defined as "that branch of mathematics which treats of the relations of numbers as expressed in equations, and in what are known as algebraic forms, or expressions." Equations are distinguished from identities. Now there is no serious objection to this definition, unless it is that it does not make the equation as an instrument of investigation sufficiently clear and prominent. In concise terms, algebra is "the science of the equation." Yet, in this text, particularly in the introductory lessons, algebra is regarded as generalized arithmetic, that is, in arithmetic figures are used to express number, in algebra figures and letters; in arithmetic positive quantities only are considered, in algebra both positive and negative.

These are incorrect, although very prevalent views. Arithmetic may be made as general as we please, and still remain arithmetic. The first thirteen pages are not algebra, because letters are used to express number, but because these examples illustrate (in a simple way) the use of the equation.

When the paragraph "Negative numbers" is reached, then for the first time the pupil meets the idea of quality. Algebra must consider this, for no extended use of the equation is possible without involving it. Fractions, factoring, exponents, etc., must be studied for the same reason.

Arithmetic deals with all numbers unmodified by the idea of quality. The numbers in arithmetic are neither positive nor negative. To speak of an arithmetical number as positive, is inaccurate, for the very concept of a positive quantity involves negative quantity.

There seems to be some confusion in regard to what represents algebraic quantity. "In algebra numbers are represented either by figures or by the letters of the alphabet." A figure cannot represent quality unless a sign is written or understood with it, and algebraic number involves quality.

A *letter* may stand for both quantity and quality, and therefore represents an algebraic number. Yet this seems to be denied by another paragraph which says: "A quantity to which the sign + is prefixed is called a *positive quantity*, and a

quantity to which the sign — is prefixed is called a *negative quantity*."

To subtract one quantity from another we are taught to change the signs of the terms in the subtrahend, and then proceed as in addition, but the "Law of Signs" has not yet been proved, and hence the fact that changing the sign of one factor changes the sign of the product, has to be assumed.

Equivalent equations are treated very meagerly. For example, the equation $\sqrt{2x+8} - 2\sqrt{x+5} = 2$ is solved, and +4 and -4 are found to be the roots. When these roots are substituted in the given equation, each one of them fails to prove. This is explained by saying that before every radical expression both + and - should be understood, and in this particular case the negative should be used. I suppose this means that the equation really solved is $-\sqrt{2x+8} + 2\sqrt{x+5} = 2$. What then shall we do with the equation $+\sqrt{2x+8} - 2\sqrt{x+5} = 2$? One would naturally think that the method that solves the first ought to solve the second. In any given equation the root or roots, if any, are definite and certain, and in solving this equation the pupil ought to know at every step whether he is introducing or eliminating any root, that is, whether his derived equation is precisely equivalent to the original, and if it is not, wherein it is not.

The same remarks might be applied to systems of equations. Every such system has certain sets of values which satisfy the equations, and in all the operations necessary to obtain these sets, we should pass from one system to an *equivalent* system, or if any change in the roots is made we should know just where and what it is. The subject of equivalent systems of equations is not treated in this text.

There is in this work a tendency to use two terms or two definitions where one would be sufficient. For example, "Index or exponent," "degree or dimension," "identical equations or identities," and two definitions of a fraction. Such repetitions in rare instances may add a little to clearness if one is already somewhat familiar with algebra, but usually they are confusing and burdensome to those going over the ground for the first time. In the case of fractions it will seem to many teachers that an unnecessary element of mystery is involved, and that a student would feel more at home if taught to regard the fraction as an indicated division—the dividend above and the divisor below the horizontal line.

There are over two thousand exercises, called "examples," and only about three hundred practical "problems."

The algebra covers about the same ground as usual, yet with a more than ordinary degree of thoroughness. Chap. XIII., which treats of "mathematical induction," "symmetry," and "cyclosymmetry," is not always found in an elementary work. Horner's synthetic division is emphasized. There is, however, no treatment of cube root, logarithms, theory of limits, or the binomial theorem for fractional and negative indices.

Colgate University.

S. L. Howe

NOTES

James E. Russell, (Ph. D. Leipsic,) formerly of the editorial staff of *THE SCHOOL REVIEW*, and still a highly valued contributor, has been appointed to the chair of Philosophy and Pedagogy in the State University of Colorado, Boulder, Col. Dr. Russell took his degree at Leipsic this winter, passing an exceptionally brilliant examination. By his appointment Colorado and the West gain the services of one of the best trained and most enthusiastic workers in the field of pedagogics.

Ginn & Co. announce for publication this spring a series of biological lectures delivered at Wood's Hall, in 1894. The lectures cover a wide range of subjects, and will for the most part be easily followed by the general reader.

Fiske's History of the United States for Schools contains a picturesque portrait of Joseph Brant, the most remarkable Indian known to history. Mr. Fiske says of him: "He was well educated, a devout member of the Episcopal Church, and translated the Prayer Book and parts of the New Testament into the Mohawk language. This combination in him of missionary and war-chief was quite curious."

Houghton, Mifflin & Co., of Boston, New York, and Chicago, will shortly publish as Number 73 of their Riverside Literature Series (paper covers 15 cents) a collection of Tennyson's poems under the title, *Enoch Arden, and Other Poems*. Besides the title poem, the book contains *The Day-Dream*, *Dora*, *The Talking Oak*, *Sea-Dreams*, *Ode on the Death of the Duke of Wellington*, *Ulysses*, *The Charge of the Light Brigade*, *Lady Clare*, *The Death of the Old Year*, *Crossing the Bar*, etc. There is also an excellent biographical sketch.

Gibbon's Memoirs. Edited with an introduction and notes by Oliver Farrar Emerson, A. M., Ph. D., Assistant Professor of Rhetoric and English Philology in Cornell University, will soon appear from the press of Ginn & Co. *Gibbon's Memoirs* of his literary life presents in a plain but remarkable story the account of the author's devotion to scholarship, and his "long sacrifice to the purest intellectual enthusiasm." "Gibbon is," says Edmund Gosse, "a typical specimen of the courage and single-heartedness of a great man of letters." Hitherto, however, the *Memoirs* have been inaccessible in

an accurate, annotated edition of moderate cost. Such an edition it is the purpose of this volume to furnish. The introduction will be devoted to the *Memoirs* as a specimen of eighteenth century prose, and to the style of Gibbon. In the notes will be explained briefly the many allusions which would be obscure without elucidation.

The "*University Extension*" and "*The Bulletin*," published by the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, have been discontinued, and their place is taken by a new periodical, "*The Citizen*," which will not only cover the field of the above journals, but will also contain in addition matter of more general interest.

The American Book Company has begun a great service in the publication of the series of National Geographic Monographs. The project is undertaken with the coöperation of the National Geographic Society of Washington. The monographs will be prepared under the auspices of the society by authors of its selection. Ten numbers constitute a volume, the price being \$1.50 for the series.

Mark Twain's comments in the January number of the *North American Review* on Paul Bourget's criticisms of the United States, have called forth a spirited rejoinder from Max O'Rell, who in the March number of the *Review* takes up the cudgels on behalf of his countryman against the strictures of the American humorist.

The announcement by Ginn & Co. of a new edition of *Greenough's Virgil*, revised by Professor J. B. Greenough and Professor George L. Kittredge, will be an item of unusual interest to teachers of Latin.

The publication office of *Public Opinion* was removed March 5 from Washington, D. C., to Clinton Hall, Astor Place, New York city, where this highly useful publication will have as fellow tenants the *Outlook* and *Review of Reviews*.

Mr. Gladstone contributes to McClure's magazine for March an article on "The Lord's Day," wherein he considers, with the fervor of conviction and the breadth of learning for which he is famous, the grounds for keeping as the Christian Sabbath the first instead of the seventh day of the week, and the proper measure and spirit of Christian Sabbath observance. With the article is a most interesting series of portraits of Gladstone covering a period of eighty years, and showing him at every important epoch of his life.

The New York State Teacher's Association will celebrate its semi-centennial anniversary at Syracuse, July 1, 2 and 3. The indications are that the meeting will be a notable one. In order that nothing may interfere with the success of this gathering, the date of convocation has been fixed this year on Thursday, Friday and Saturday, June 27-29. This action of the regents will be welcomed by many as indicating conclusively enough their solicitude for the interest of the common schools. Had the date of convocation remained the same as last year, not a few would have been detained from one meeting or the other who will now be glad of the opportunity to enjoy both.

The Aims of Literary Study, by Dr. Hiram Corson, (Macmillan, 75 cents;) is no less out of the ordinary run of books in its dainty form than in its stimulating content. The latter is so little like the every day literary criticism that some may find it at first not readily to be understood. The sympathetic insight for the spiritual in literature that Dr. Corson possesses in so high a degree is a rare possession among the sons of men. The teacher of literature can not but be a better teacher for thoroughly assimilating this little book, while every lover of literature will find in it a specimen of literary exposition which is itself literature.

Eight new *Old South Leaflets* have just been added to the series published by the directors of the *Old South Studies in History*, in Boston. These new leaflets are all reprints of documents relating to early New England history, as follows: Bradford's Memoir of Elder Brewster, Bradford's First Dialogue, Winthrop's "Conclusions for the Plantation in New England," "New England's First Fruits," 1643, John Eliot's "Indian Grammar Begun," John Cotton's "God's Promise to His Plantation," Letters of Roger Williams to Winthrop, and Thomas Hooker's "Way of the Churches in New England."

We wish to call attention to the following corrections: on page 111 of this volume, last line, "fountain" should be "formation," and on the following page, instead of Professor Lord, of Wesleyan, Professor Lord, of Wellesley, was intended.

With the publication of the sixth, and what was to have been the concluding volume of Professor Skeat's monumental edition of *Chaucer*, comes the notice that a supplementary volume is now being prepared, to be issued in 1895, containing the *Testament of Love*, (in prose), and the chief poems which have at various times been attributed to Chaucer and published with his genuine works in old editions. The volume will be complete in itself, with an introduction, notes and glossary; and will be uniform with the six volumes comprising *Chaucer's Complete Works* already published.

We are informed by Moritz Diesterweg, Frankfurt on the Main, that the price of Langenberg's edition of the selected writings of Adolf Diesterweg in four substantial volumes has been reduced in price from 12 marks to 4 marks, practically 25 cents a volume. It almost seems too bad that the invaluable works of one of Germany's very foremost educators must be sold so cheap.

Of all the publications that come to our table none is so delightful as *Sun and Shade*, (N. Y. Photogravure Co.); for there are no long pages of reading with the chance that they may be tiresome, but each month eight beautiful pictures, reproductions from the most famous artists made with consummate skill. The January number contains eight reproductions from the famous gallery of Mr. Louis R. Ehrich, all illustrative of Flemish art. The first is an exquisite reproduction by the three-color chrome-gelatine process of The Holy Family, by Van der Weyden. The others, photogravures, represent works of Rembrandt, Jan Wynants, Paul Potter, Netscher, Rubens, Van Goyen, and Adrian Van de Velde.

Books of every conceivable kind, on every imaginable topic, are so abundant that it is risky to characterize any book as unique. We venture, nevertheless, to say that the like of *Hoofs, Claws and Antlers of the Rocky Mountains*, (Frank S. Thayer, Denver, Col.,) has never before been seen. To say that the book is made up of thirty-five large plates of the wild animals of the Rockies, with five pages of description, and a highly commendatory preface by Hon. Theodore Roosevelt, and that it is bound in a novel and beautiful way, after all tells little. But let us add that nearly all the plates were made from photographs of animals taken in their native haunts, when they little thought they were posing, by Mr. and Mrs. A. G. Wallihan, Mr. Wallihan being postmaster at Lay, Col.; that two of these photographs alone represent twenty-six days of arduous travel and dangerous pursuit, and that the plates are not only artistic and attractive beyond easy description, but also perfectly natural and therefore of high scientific value, and we begin to suspect the character of the work. We cordially indorse the closing words of Mr. Roosevelt's introduction: "It is a credit to Colorado and a credit to the United States that a book of this kind should be produced." The mechanical execution is faultless, luxurious. A better gift book for a boy or any one else is not easily found.

In the death of Dr. Coit, rector of St. Paul's school, Concord, N. H., American secondary education has lost one of its chiefest ornaments. Dr. Coit was one of the very few great head masters, one who might not unworthily be compared with Arnold, of Rugby. He built up a great school, moulded by his personality. His work will be preserved in the annals of our educational development, and perpetuated in the lives and characters of his boys.

The election of the Hon. Charles R. Skinner* to the high office of Superintendent of Public Instruction of the state of New York, is an event of first-class importance in the educational world. Mr. Skinner is the first man, in this state at least, to be promoted to the superintendency after long experience in the detail work of the department. In his work as deputy superintendent under Judge Draper, and later as Director of Teachers' Training Classes and Teacher's Institutes, he has already done admirable service and acquired the fullest knowledge of the duties and opportunities of the high office into which he will be inducted on the 8th of April. His power may then be greater than that of any other educational officer in the United States. Educators and the friends of education have the fullest confidence in his ability and purpose to make the influence of his office all that it ought to be. He has the high and worthy ambition to put the schools of New York at the head, in every way, and to keep them there. He comes to his work with a full appreciation of the essential unity of all educational effort, from kindergarten to university. He brings to it an open mind, and a desire for the best. With an equipment so varied and practical, and an ambition so high and progressive, and with the cordial support and coöperation that are his due, Mr. Skinner may confidently be relied upon in his administration to fulfil the high expectations caused by his election.

*For the portrait of Mr. Skinner, which forms the frontispiece of this number, we are indebted to the courtesy of Mr. C. W. Bardeen, the editor of *The School Bulletin*.

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE

To Ancient Greek Through Modern. No! By PROF. PAUL SHOREY, Forum, January, 1895.

A New Aid to Education: Travelling Libraries. WM. R. EASTMAN, Forum, January, 1895.

The Increasing Cost of Collegiate Education. C. F. THWING, Forum, January, 1895.

The Architecture of the Schoolhouses. By C. HOWARD WALKER, Atlantic Monthly, December, 1894.

First Attacks on the Mother Tongue, By PROF. JAMES SULLY, Popular Science Monthly, February, 1895.

It is now recognized that a child's first imitative talk, which might be described as monopic or single-worded—as "wow-wow," "dow" (down)—is essentially vague in so far as the word-sound used covers a number of our meanings. Thus "wow-wow" may mean "the dog is there," or "the dog is doing something," or "I want (or, possibly, don't want) the dog." These words are "sentence-words"—that is, they are meant to convey a whole process of thought. Only the thought is as yet only half formed or germinal in the degree of its differentiation. Thus it is fairly certain that when the child wants you to sit down and says "dow," it does not clearly realize the relation which you and I understand under that word, but merely has a mental picture of you in the position of sitter.

In these first attempts to use our speech the child's mind is innocent of grammatical distinctions. These arise out of the particular uses of words in sentence structure, and of this structure the child has as yet no inkling. If, then, following a common practice, I speak of a child of twelve or fifteen months as *naming* an object, the reader must not suppose that I am ascribing to the baby mind a clear grasp of the function of what grammarians call nouns (substantives). All that is implied in this way of speaking is that the infant's first words are used mainly as recognition signs. There is from the first, I conceive, even in the gesture of pointing and saying "da!" a germ of this naming process.

The progress of this first rude naming or articulate recognition is very interesting. The names first learned are either those of individuals, what we call proper names, as mamma, nurse, or those which, like "bath," "wow-wow," are at first applied to one particular object. It is often supposed that a child uses these as true singular names, recognizing individual objects as such; but this is pretty certainly an error. He has no clear idea of an individual thing as yet; and he will, as occasion arises, quite spontaneously extend his names to other individuals, as we see in his lumping together other men with his sire under the name "papa."

The Secret of the Roman Oracles. Atlantic Monthly, March, 1895.

An instructive and interesting paper on the methods employed in ancient Roman divination.

The New Reign in Russia. By VICTOR YARROS, in The Chautauquan, March, 1895.

In the matter of education, the field of reform is infinite. In the villages, the farcical schools now controlled by the ignorant and overworked priesthood have to be replaced by schools properly so-called, and the number of them has to be increased enormously. A reform government can not fear the spread of elementary education. The illiteracy of rural Russia is a disgrace to the government. Owing to the dread of revolutionary propaganda, the number of high schools and gymnasia has been kept down, and education made too expensive to be within the reach of the poor. Finally, the universities have been deprived of their autonomy, and the students subjected to military discipline and surrounded by vexatious and petty regulations. This policy would have to be reversed. Russia needs more educated citizens, not less, and the interests of a progressive ruler would not conflict with this national need. The anti-education measures have affected the young women of Russia even more injuriously than the young men. Higher education, and the opportunities of qualifying themselves for the practice of the liberal professions, have been withheld from them, and hundreds have had to go abroad to study medicine since the closing of the medical school for women in St. Petersburg. Of late there has been some talk of reopening it, but the conditions it is proposed to impose would exclude those who need it most and who would prove most useful to society as workers.

A Glimpse of Cuba. By JAMES KNAPP REEVE. Lippincott's magazine, March, 1895.

A bright, readable sketch of travel of special interest just now for "Current Topic" classes by reason of the disturbances in that island.

Student Honor and College Examinations. Professor W. LE CONTE STEVENS, Forum, February, 1895.

It is probably within the truth to say that shortly before the beginning of every summer vacation a majority of those who are engaged in the work of instruction, whether in colleges or preparatory schools, have their attention called, directly or indirectly, to cases of dishonesty in examination. The evil is widespread, but in college at least it may now be confidently said to be diminishing. Probably it will never wholly cease so long as periodic written examinations continue in vogue, nor, indeed, so long as students are subjected to any kind of examination whatever. In civil life, courts of justice and prisons are as necessary to-day as they were in the day when Roman law was becoming formulated as a basis for future codes. Human nature among students is substantially what it was and is among their parents. The virtue of truthfulness is praised in the abstract, but truth is so commonly sacrificed in the pursuit of profit that in certain kinds of business its violation is assumed as a matter of course, and strict integrity is looked upon as

the characteristic of a simpleton. Students are not superior to the world around them; they cannot be held to a standard superior to that of society at large.

There is much unanimity of opinion that the only effective means of securing general honesty in examinations is the development of high moral tone in student society. If the disposition is manifested to treat every student as an honorable gentleman just so far as he warrants this assumption, then in most cases the disposition to cheat is taken away. To repose a trust produces generally a desire to honor that trust. The sooner such mutual confidence is developed as may warrant the complete withdrawal of espionage, the better it is for all. At both Cornell and Princeton universities the experiment has been begun, within the last two years, of leaving the students themselves the control of all cases of discipline necessitated by human weakness in examination. The same plan has been carried out for many years in the South Carolina College, the Universities of Georgia and Virginia, and many other Southern colleges. It has but lately been introduced in a modified form into the University of California. At Williams College, last summer, the faculty responded favorably to a proposition of the sophomore class to permit the experiment to be tried at least with this class during the coming scholastic year.

Why we need a National University. Professor SIMON NEWCOMB. North American Review, February, 1895.

The idea of founding a great university at the seat of government of the United States is as old as the Constitution. The subject was considered by the makers of that instrument, and it may fairly be inferred from the debates that it was dropped only because, under the clause relating to the District of Columbia, Congress had ample power to found a university. Washington took such interest in the project that he bequeathed to the nation in aid of it a sum which at that time appeared munificent, and which would have insured its successful foundation had the fund been securely and profitably invested. It is even said that he selected, on the banks of the Potomac, as a site for the institution, a hill which was afterward occupied by the old Naval Observatory. Presidents have formally recommended the measure, and philosophers and statesmen have shown its expediency. Yet we have entered upon the second century of our national existence without its having advanced beyond the preliminary stage of a bill before Congress. A national university at Washington seems to me one of the most pressing of our public needs, and one which would long since have been supplied had not strong reasons in favor of doing so been very generally overlooked.

In the March *Harper's Monthly*, Charles Dudley Warner, in the *Editor's Drawer*, continues his keen and suggestive treatment of certain phases of our educational system. This month the topics first considered is the lamentable increase in ignorance of the Bible among school and college students. The ultimate cause of this he finds in the lack of consideration now shown the Bible in the homes of the land. The real remedy must be found there. The study of the Bible as literature in colleges and universities will only

prove a palliative. The second topic discussed is that our systematical education does not adequately provide for the training of the organ that is to acquire and assimilate the knowledge. In this connection there is a brief description of a very interesting system of mind-training, or concentrated attention, as practised by Miss Catherine Aiken in her girl's school in Stamford, Conn.

Scientific Method in Board Schools. By H. E. ARMSTRONG, F. R. S., Popular Science Monthly, March, 1895.

Biological Work in Secondary Schools. By A. J. MCCLATCHIE, Popular Science Monthly, March, 1895.

The first thing that all beginners must learn is to see a thing just as it is. The best stimulus to seeing accurately comes through expressing what has been seen. This expression should be required of the pupils in three forms: Drawing, notes, and oral discussions. Along with this mental development must also go a moral development. Seeing accurately is only seeing the thing as it actually is—that is, seeing the truth; and drawing and describing are only stating the facts, or telling the truth. Here is where the temptations lie. An indolent or careless pupil finds telling the exact truth with his pencil point to be arduous, and is tempted to distort or only partially represent the truth. But accuracy of expression must be a constant drill in truthfulness.

What Psychical Research has Accomplished. By FRANK PODMORE, North American Review, March, 1895.

Competitive Examinations in China. By T. L. BULLOCK, *Littell's Living Age*, Aug. 25, 1894. (Reprinted from *The Nineteenth Century*.)

A full and interesting account of a unique educational custom; has a bearing on civil service reform as well as education. Few are familiar with the Chinese system, or know that they have a system. The plan by which they examine six or eight thousand students at a time will be read with attention, mixed not a little with amazement.

The New York Common Schools. By STEPHEN H. OLIN, *Harper's Magazine*, March, 1895.

The Direction of Education. By N. S. SHALES, *Atlantic Monthly*, March, 1895.

The Want of Economy in the Lecture System. Profesfor JOHN TROWBRIDGE, *The Atlantic Monthly*, January, 1895

Holds that the lecture as a means of giving instruction is pretty much a waste of time and that it ought to be supplanted by the laboratory method; deals with the question only from the point of view of the teacher of science; calls attention to an undoubted evil, but probably goes too far the other way.

Studies of Childhood. By Prof. JAMES SULLY, *Psychological and Theological Ideas*. Popular Science Monthly, January, 1895.

School Ethics. By H. C. BLACKWOOD COWELL.—*Id.*

Schoolroom Ventilation as an Investment. By G. H. KNIGHT.—*Id.*

Four pages to say that such ventilation does not exist and is not considered a profitable investment. Alas! we knew it already.

FOREIGN NOTES.

SUCCESS IN LIFE

The Schoolmaster, (London) Feb. 9, 1895

The head master of Harrow has been giving the members of the Working Men's College, Great Ormond street, some sound advice on "Success in Life." Said Dr. Welldon:

The question often arose in his mind how it was that learning, when tested by examination and guaranteed by certificate, was so far from being an infallible promise of success in life. When he looked back it struck him with something like astonishment that a half, or rather much less than a half, of the capable students he knew at school or college had risen, or were likely to rise to any sort of eminence in life, while, on the other hand, among those who were now doing the best work in the world, there were not a few who, in the days of college life, were not distinguished at all, who won no prizes, and who received no intellectual hall mark. And the conclusion to which he was driven was that success in life was the resultant of a good many factors, of which learning was only one, and perhaps not the chief. Among the qualities which made for success there was no doubt that the first was character, and by character he did not mean that one should keep within the bounds of social etiquette and propriety; he meant that one's life should be far higher, far more conscientious than that. He was in the habit of saying to his boys when they left Harrow, "Whether you are very clever or very popular does not matter very much, but if it is known about you that you would not for any consideration in the world depart, by a hair's breadth, from the strict line of honour, then there is nothing too hard for you in life." Above all things, let them avoid cynicism, for a cynic and a sinner were not far apart, and he who was disposed to find faults in others was apt to commit faults himself, a form of conceit which was borne in upon members of his profession, and he suggested with diffidence that the affection of parents for their children was sometimes a form of conceit. One more fact of success in life he would allude to—it was that in the conduct of life they should practise methodical business-like habits. It could not have escaped their attention that a man who was always overworked generally did very little, while the man who did most had most leisure. The difficulty lay not in knowledge or industry, but in method, and if they found a man who was always overdone they might be pretty sure that he was not doing much.

THE COLLEGES OF OXFORD, AND AGRICULTURAL DEPRESSION

Educational Times, (London,) Feb. 1, 1895

At a recent meeting of the Royal Statistical Society, a paper was read by Mr. L. L. Price, on "The Colleges of Oxford, and Agricultural Depression." The accounts of the Oxford and Cambridge Colleges have been published year by year for some time past, and in Mr. Price's paper the accounts of the Oxford Colleges for the years 1883-93 were brought under review. The gross external receipts of the colleges were in 1893 some £11,000 less than in 1883, and the net external receipts some £13,000. Though the

external receipts are not entirely derived from agricultural estates, it seems within the facts to regard agricultural depression as responsible for a loss of upwards of £60,000 of income in 1893. Turning to the effects of the depression upon the emoluments of the Heads, Fellows, Scholars, and Exhibitioners, to which the college revenues are mainly devoted, it appears that these effects have been mitigated by the circumstances that the external receipts are not exclusively agricultural, and that the emoluments are also partly derived from internal receipts and from trusts. Still the emoluments of the Heads have fallen from £22,811 to £20,905, and of the Fellows from £83,820 to £74,749. The emoluments of the Scholars and Exhibitioners have, however, increased from £44,776 to £48,378, and their number has grown by upwards of ninety; and if the increased contributions made by the Colleges to the University are taken into consideration, the all in the total payments is only about 5 per cent. But there are Colleges where diminutions have occurred of more than 25 per cent., in the emoluments of the Fellows, and the figures are altered considerably for the worse by eliminating a few prosperous Colleges.

MR. AUGUSTINE BIRRELL ON "GOOD TASTE"

Educational Times, (London,) February 1, 1895

From a fascinating lecture on "Good Taste," which Mr. Augustine Birrell delivered some months ago, and which is now printed *in extenso* in *Harper's Magazine*, we cull the following passage on the value of classical studies in schools:—

It is said *de gustibus non est disputandum*; . . . the saying is characterized by the usual untruthfulness of proverbs—for a good thumping lie, recommend me to proverb. As a matter of fact, there is less difference of opinion amongst qualified persons on questions of taste than many other kinds of questions. . . . Some of our judgments are irreversible, and our first studies should be of those things which *sana mens omnium hominum attestatur*, and which, therefore, stand on high never to be pulled down. The remoter these things are from our immediate environment the better they are suited to be studied line by line, and in an atmosphere free from personal elements. Homer, Virgil, Dante, are better models of style and diction than any of our own poets, for this reason, if for no other, that we are compelled by what I may compendiously, though feelingly, describe as "the surrounding difficulties," to study them with a severity of purpose and accuracy of mind we might be unwilling to bestow upon Shakespeare and Milton, or even on Spenser or Chaucer.

* * *

Mr. Birrell makes light of the argument that we "waste" a good deal of time over Greek and Latin; we do not pretend to teach them for directly practical purposes:—

Not one boy in a thousand becomes a scholar in the strict sense of the word, but the place of Homer, of Virgil, of Horace, in our educational system does not depend upon the output of scholars. These great masters play the same part in our æsthetic education as does the Matterhorn even to the man who never gets beyond the first hut. The rapture of the summit is not for that rudimentary mountaineer, who will, nevertheless, carry down with him into the valleys the knowledge of what a mountain is. No mole-hill need in future ever hope to palm itself off upon him as a member of the great race; that traveller will know better. So, too, he who has once caught the

clear accents, learnt the great language of a true master of poetic diction, though his scholarship may be unripe, is not likely to be found wallowing among the potsherds, or, decked out with vulgar fairings, following in the wake of some noisy charlatan in his twenty-fifth edition.

M. JEAN-FRANÇOIS MACÉ

Journal of Education, (London,) Feb., 1895

As our last note on France was being penned, one of the greatest French schoolmen of modern times lay dying, and on the thirteenth of December he passed away. M. Jean-François Macé, known in England chiefly as the founder of the *Ligue de l'Enseignement*, was born in Paris on the 22nd of August, 1815; he had thus, at his death, passed his seventy-ninth year, and furnishes one more proof that sustained activity is conducive to length of days. After completing, in 1835, his studies at the Collège Stanislas, he returned to it in the following year as *maître répétiteur*, and shortly afterwards was appointed *maître de conférences* at the Collège Henri IV. From 1842 to 1845 he served with the army, being bought free in the latter year by one of his old teachers, who made him his secretary. Politics next claimed M. Macé's attention. "Never shall I forget," he writes at this time, "the moment in my life when the ideas of country and justice first rose before me in all their grandeur, and as sovereign mistresses, took possession of my soul. I remained, whilst the trouble lasted, shut up in my room, almost without food or sleep." The revolution of 1848 was hailed by him with joy, and for a brief period he played his part in the strife as contributor to *La République*. When the *coup d'état* fell, Paris was no place for M. Macé to linger in; he found asylum at Beblenheim, in Alsace, where, in the modest post of teacher in a school for girls—"le Petit Château," which he rendered famous—some of his best work was done. Teaching science, he set himself to convey its principles in a simple form. Hence the well-known "Histoire d'une bouchée de pain," a series of letters to a child on the life of men and animals, which placed its author in the front rank of what our neighbors term *vulgarisateurs*. A host of books for the young followed, two of which, "Grandpapa's Arithmetic" and the "Little Kingdom, or the Servants of the Stomach," have been translated for the English public. To pass to his more active work, when M. Macé went to Beblenheim, he first organized the library of the Commune; then, in 1863, he founded the *Société des Bibliothèques Communales du Haut-Rhin*. Next year he began his journal, the *Magasin d'Education et de Récréation*; and 1866 laid the first stones of La Ligue, which can now boast of more than thirty thousand members. Eleven years ago his countrymen elected him a Senator for life, and his days closed amid abundant honour. We gladly offer our small tribute of praise to one to whom, more than to any other single man, France owes her free, compulsory, and secular education.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

PEDAGOGICS

- HART**: Studies in American Education. By Albert Bushnell Hart, Ph. D., of Harvard University. Size 5x7½ in.; pp. 150. Longmans, Green & Co.
- JACKSON**: U. S. Bureau of Education. Reprint of Chapter XXVIII. of the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1891-92. Education in Alaska. 1891-92. Sheldon Jackson, D. D., General Agent. Size 5¼x9 in.; pp. 48. Washington: Government Printing Office.
- JACKSON**: U. S. Bureau of Education. Reprint of Senate Executive Document No. 70. Fifty-third Congress, second session. Report on Introduction of Domesticated Reindeer into Alaska, with Maps and Illustrations, by Sheldon Jackson, D. D., General Agent of Education in Alaska. 1894. Size 5¼x9 in.; pp. 187. Washington: Government Printing Office.
- STEINER**: United States Bureau of Education. Circular of Information No. 2, 1894. Contributions to American Educational History. Edited by Herbert B. Adams. No. 10. History of Education in Maryland. By Bernard C. Steiner, Ph. D., Librarian of the Enoch Pratt Free Library of Baltimore City. Size 5¼x9 in.; pp. 331. Washington: Government Printing Office.
- STOWELL**: The Training of Teachers. By Thomas R. Stowell, A. M., Ph. D., Principal State Normal School, Potsdam, N. Y. Size 5¼x8½ in.; pp. 18. Rochester, N. Y.: Educational Gazette Co.
- Biennial Report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction of North Carolina for the Scholastic Years from July 1, 1892, to June 30 1893 and from July 1, 1893, to June 30, 1894. Made to General Assembly of 1895. Size 5¼x9 in.; pp. 62. Raleigh: Josephus Daniels State Printer and Binder.
- Catalogue of the Roxbury Latin School, Kearsarge Ave., Boston, Mass. 1894-95. Two Hundred and Fiftieth Year. Size 5¼x7½ in.; pp. 62.
- State Education for the People in America, Europe, India, and Australia. With Papers on the Education of Women, Technical Instruction and Payment by Results. Size 6x9¼ in.; pp. 176. Price \$1.25. C. W. Bardeen.

ENGLISH LITERATURE

- BURKE**: Burke's Reflections on the Revolution in France. Edited with Introduction and Notes. By F. G. Selby, M. A., late Scholar of Wadham College, Oxford. Size 4½x7 in.; pp. lxxxi. 48s. Price 70 cents. Macmillan & Co.
- CHAUCER**: The Student's Chaucer. Being a Complete Edition of his Works. Edited from Numerous Manuscripts by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, Litt. D., LL. D., Erlington and Bosworth Professor of Anglo-Saxon in the University of Cambridge. Size 5¼x8¼ in.; pp. xxii. 140. Price \$1.75. Macmillan & Co.
- STRUNK**: Macaulay's and Carlyle's Essays on Samuel Johnson. Edited with Introduction and Notes by William Strunk, Jr., Instructor in English, Cornell University. Size 4½x6½ in.; pp. xi. 192. Price 40 cents. Henry Holt & Co.
- WATKINS**: Literature Primers. American Literature. By Mildred Cabell Watkins. Size 4½x6 in.; pp. 224. Price 35 cents. American Book Co.

LATIN AND GREEK LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES

- ARROWSMITH**: See Peck.
- AUSTIN**: Outline Lessons for the Study of Ancient Geography. By Francis M. Austin, A. M., Instructor in Latin, Wesleyan Academy, Wilbraham, Mass. Size 5½x7½ in.; pp. 31. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
- BENNETT**: A Latin Grammar. By Charles E. Bennett, Professor of Latin in Cornell University. Size 5x7½ in.; pp. x 265. Price 80 cents. Allyn & Bacon.
- BOSANQUET**: A Companion to Plato's Republic for English Readers. Being a Commentary adapted to Davis and Vaughan's Translation. By Bernard Bosanquet, M. A., LL. D., formerly Fellow of University College, Oxford. Size 5½x7¼ in.; pp. xii. 430. Price \$1.75. N. Y.: Macmillan & Co.
- D'OOGHE**: Latin in Composition Tablet. By B. L. D'Ooghe, M. A., Professor in Latin and Greek, Michigan State Normal School, Ypsilanti. Size 6x9 in. Price 20 cents. Ginn & Co.
- PECK**: Roman Life in Latin Prose and Verse. Illustrative Readings from Latin Literature. Selected and Edited by Harry Thurston Peck, Ph. D., Professor of the Latin Languages and Literature, Columbia College, and Robert Arrowsmith, Ph. D., Professor of Greek and Latin, Teachers' College, New York. Size 5x7½ in.; pp. 256. Price \$1.50. American Book Co.

- SCHREIBER : Atlas of Classical Antiquities. By Th. Schreiber. Edited for English use by Professor W. C. F. Anderson, Firth College, Sheffield. With a Preface by Professor Percy Gardner. Size 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ x13 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. 203. Price \$6.50. Macmillan & Co.
- SCUDDER : First Latin Reader, Including Principles of Syntax and Exercises for Translation. By Jared W. Scudder, A. M., Latin Master in the Albany Academy. Size 4 $\frac{1}{4}$ x7 in.; pp. xi. 284. Price 90 cents. Allyn & Bacon.

FRENCH AND GERMAN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES

- BAUMBACH : Frau Holde. Ein Gedicht von Rudolf Baumbach. With Introduction and Notes by Laurence Fossler, A. M., Professor of Germanic Languages, University of Nebraska. Size 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ x6 $\frac{1}{4}$ in.; pp. vi. 105. Price 25 cents. Henry Holt & Co.
- BERNHARDT : Heath's Modern Language Series. Kleine Geschichten von Richard von Volkmann (Richard Leander) und andere Erzählungen. With Notes and Vocabulary for Beginners in German, by Wilhelm Bernhardt. Director of German Instruction in the High Schools of Washington, D. C. Size 5x7 $\frac{1}{4}$ in.; pp. ix. 90. Price 30 cents. D. C. Heath & Co.
- VON CHAMISSO : Peter Schlemihls Wundersame Geschichte. Von Adelbert von Chamisso. With Introduction and Notes by Frank Vogel, A. M., Assistant Professor of Modern Languages, Massachusetts Institute of Technology. With Cruikshank's Illustrations. Size 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ x6 $\frac{1}{4}$ in.; pp. xv. 126. Price 25 cents. Henry Holt & Co.
- DUMAS : Episodes from Mes Mémoires par Alexandre Dumas. La Poudre de Soissons. Edited with Notes by E. E. M. Creak, B. A., Associate of Newham College. Cambridge; Head Mistress of King Edward's High School for Girls, Birmingham. Size 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. 108. Price 40 cents. Longmans, Green & Co.
- ESCLANGON : The French Verb Newly Treated. An Easy, Uniform and Synthetic Method of its Conjugation. By A. Esclangon, Examiner in the University of London. Size 7x9 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. xii. 205. Price \$1.25. Macmillan & Co.
- VON KLENZE : Deutsche Gedichte. Selected with Notes and an Introduction by Camillo Von Klenze, Ph. D., Instructor in German in the University of Chicago. Size 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ x6 $\frac{1}{4}$ in.; pp. xiii. 331. Price 90 cents. Henry Holt & Co.
- LABICHE : Maynard's French Texts. No. 9. La Poudre aux Yeux. Comédie par Mm. Eugène Labiche et Edouard Martin. Edited by Arthur H. Solial, A. B., A. M., Instructor of French in the West Division High School, Chicago. Size 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ x6 $\frac{1}{4}$ in.; pp. 107. Maynard, Merrill & Co.
- MARTIN : See Labiche.
- DE MUSSET : A Selection from the Poetry and Comedies of Alfred de Musset. Edited with an Introduction and Notes by L. Oscar Kuhns, Professor of Romance Languages in Wesleyan University. Size 5x7 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. xxvii. 282. Ginn & Co.
- WHITNEY : An Introductory German Reader. By William Dwight Whitney, Professor of Sanskrit and Comparative Philology of Yale University, and Marian P. Whitney, Teacher of Modern Languages at the Hillhouse High School, New Haven. Size 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ x6 $\frac{1}{4}$ in.; pp. vii. 309. Price \$1. Henry Holt & Co.
- VON WILDENBRUCH : Maynard's German Text. No. 9. Harold. Trauerspiel in Fünf Akten von Ernst von Wildenbruch. Advanced Text with Preface and Notes by A. Voegelin M. A., Assistant Master at St. Paul's School, London. Size 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ x7 in.; pp. vi. 133. Maynard, Merrill & Co.

HISTORY AND POLITICAL ECONOMY

- BARTLETT : Facts I Ought to Know About the Government of My Country. By William H. Bartlett, Principal of the Chandler Street School, Worcester, Mass. Size 4x5 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. xviii. 150. Worcester, Mass.: Press of Charles Hamilton.
- LARNED : History for Ready Reference. From the Best Historians, Biographers, and Specialists Their Own Words in a Complete System of History. For all Uses. Extending to all Countries and Subjects and Representing for Both Readers and Students the Better and Newer Literature of History in the English Language. By J. N. Larned. With numerous Historical Maps from Original Studies and Drawings by Alan C. Reley. In Five Volumes. Volume IV., Nicaea to Tunis. Size 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ x11 in.; pp. 760. The C. A. Nichols Co.
- MALTHUS : Parallel Chapters from the First and Second Editions of an Essay on the Principle of Population. By T. R. Malthus. 1798-1803. Size 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ x7 in.; pp. xix. 134. Price 75 cents. Macmillan & Co.
- WHITNEY : Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. Herbert B. Adams, Editor. Thirteenth Series. I-II., Government of the Colony of South Carolina. By Edison L. Whitney, Ph. D., LL. B., Professor of History, Benzonia, Mich. Size 6x9 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.; pp. 121. Price 75 cents. The Johns Hopkins Press.
- Old South Leaflets. No. 48. Bradford's Memoir of Elder Brewster. pp. 8; No. 49. Governor Bradford's First Dialogue. pp. 24; No. 50. Winthrop's Conclusions. pp. 12; No. 51. New England's First Fruits: In Respect of the College, and Proceedings of Learn-

ing Therein. pp. 16; No. 52. The Indian Grammar Begun. pp. 16; No. 53. God's Promise to His Plantations. pp. 16; No. 54. Letters of Roger Williams to Winthrop. pp. 20; No. 55. The Way of the Churches of New England. pp. 16. Size of each $5\frac{3}{4}$ in. Published by the Directors of the Old South Work, Old South Meeting-House, Boston.

SCIENCE

- GLAZEBROOK: Cambridge Natural Science Manuals. Physical Series. Mechanics. An Elementary Text Book. Theoretical and Practical. For Colleges and Schools. Dynamics by R. T. Glazebrook, M. A., F. R. S., Assistant Director of the Cavendish Laboratory; Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Size $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{4}$ in.; pp. xii. 256. Price \$1.25. Macmillan & Co.
- HARRIS: How to Teach Natural Science in Public Schools. By Wm. T. Harris LL. D., Commissioner of Education. Second Edition, from New Plates. Size $4\frac{1}{2} \times 7$ in.; pp. viii. 46. Price 50 cents. C. W. Bardeen.

ARCHAEOLOGY

- BRINTON: Publications of the University of Pennsylvania. Series in Philology, Literature and Archaeology. Vol. III. No. 2. A Primer of Mayan Hieroglyphics by Daniel G. Brinton, A. M., Sc. D., Professor of American Archaeology and Linguistics in the University of Pennsylvania. Size 6×9 in.; pp. vi. 148. Price \$1.20. Ginn & Co.

MUSIC

- MCLAUGHLIN: The Advanced Fourth Music Reader for Upper Grammar Classes and High Schools by James M. McLaughlin, Special Instructor in Music, Boston Public High Schools, and George A. Veazie, Supervisor of Music, Chelsea Public Schools. The Two-part and Three-part Studies. Composed Expressly for this Work, by W. W. Gilchrist. Size $6\frac{1}{2} \times 9$ in.; pp. 300. Ginn & Co.
- VEAZIE: McLaughlin.

GEOGRAPHY

- POWELL: National Geographic Monographs. Prepared under the Auspices of the National Geographic Society. Gardiner G. Hubbard, President Physiographic Processes. By John W. Powell, late Director of the United States Geological Survey. Size $7\frac{1}{2} \times 11\frac{1}{4}$ in.; pp. 32. American Book Co.

ART

- PARTRIDGE: Technique of Sculpture. By William Ordway Partridge. Size $5\frac{1}{4} \times 7\frac{1}{4}$ in.; pp. iv. 118. Price \$1.10. Ginn & Co.

MISCELLANEOUS

- RICE: Small Talk About Business. By A. E. Rice. A Banker's Business Hints for Men and Women. Size $5\frac{1}{4} \times 7\frac{1}{4}$ in.; pp. 60. Fremont, Ohio: Fremont Publishing Co.

